

*THE*  
**Bulletin**

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION  
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



**Instructional Practices  
in the Secondary School**

**including**

**A Survey of Junior High School  
Interscholastic Athletics**

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# The Bulletin

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# A Survey of Interscholastic Athletic Programs in Separately Organized Junior High Schools

A Project of the NASSP Committee on Junior High-School Education<sup>1</sup>

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS  
and VIRGINIA ROE

## INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This is a factual survey of present practices and attitudes concerning junior high-school interscholastic athletics. To our knowledge, this is the first publication to present nation-wide data on this controversial issue.

As might be expected, considerable disagreement exists among the profession on the benefits accruing from an interscholastic athletic program in the junior high school. Our findings, however, reveal facts regarding practices and attitudes on which there can be little disagreement. As the data are for the school year 1957-58, they represent up-to-date information.

The Committee on Junior High-School Education is grateful to the 2,329 high-school principals who supplied information for this survey. The Committee wishes to thank those members of the central staff who, in addition to the authors, assisted in the publication: Florence Damon, June Galusha, Betty Trimble, and Lee Trumbo.

## DEFINITIONS

*Interscholastic Athletics:* Team competition between separate schools within or outside a school system.

*Separately organized junior high schools:* Those junior high-schools administered as a separate unit apart from the senior high school and the elementary school. Does not include the junior high-school grades in 6-year junior-senior high schools.

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### PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

To ascertain the extent of specified interscholastic athletic competition in separately organized junior high-schools.

To find the degree of agreement or conflict between philosophy and practice in junior high-school interscholastic athletic programs.

To portray significant trends in junior high-school athletics as revealed by the data.

To learn the standards that have been set by state departments of education, state athletic associations, regional conferences, and school systems for junior high-school athletic participation.

### PROCEDURE

The questionnaire was prepared by the members of the Committee on Junior High-School Education on the advice of the NASSP central staff and of recognized experts in the field, including the staff of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. A test run was made by selected junior high-school principals and specialists. Then the questionnaire was mailed to principals of all 4,559 separately organized junior high schools in the nation. A total of 2,329 separately organized junior high schools, enrolling 1.6 million pupils, sent completed replies to us.

Some of the schools did not complete every item in the questionnaire. In each of the tables, the column "Number of Schools Responding" refers only to the particular item tabulated.

Of the responding schools, 21.2% enrolled under 300; 56.7% enrolled 300-999, while the remaining 22.1% of the schools enrolled 1,000 or more pupils.

By grades in school, 74.1% of the responding schools had grades 7-9. Comparable figures for grades 7-8 are 19.6%, and for grades 7-10, 2.2%. The remaining 4.1% of the responding junior high schools included uncommon types of grade organization such as 8-9, 6-8, 6-9, *etc.*

The total enrollment of schools responding reported a September 1957 population of 1,545,192 pupils. (As some 82 junior high schools did not indicate their enrollment, we conservatively estimate a total of 1.6 million pupil population in all schools responding.) By size of school, those under 300 enrolled 87,551 pupils, those between 300-999 enrolled 781,902, and those of 1,000 or more pupil population enrolled 675,739.

Although about half of all junior high schools in the nation answered our inquiry, it is estimated that about 90% of the total junior high-school enrollment is represented in the data of this report. Therefore, in terms of pupil enrollment, this survey can be considered a comprehensive one.

The findings are briefly reviewed here in question-and-answer form. This section of the report is not intended to be comprehensive and, therefore, has only limited reference to the state-by-state information

contained in most all of the tables. To obtain a full acquaintance with details of the survey, it is necessary to examine the tables. Our purpose in streamlining the findings is to provide an overview to those readers who may not be interested in an intensive examination of the data.

### A PRIMER OF THE FINDINGS

*How many junior high schools have a program of interscholastic athletics?*

A little more than 85% have some program of interscholastic athletics; a little less than 15% do not. (See Table 1 for state-by-state data.)

*How many principals favor or oppose a program of interscholastic athletics?*

The great majority favors them—although the answer has to be qualified. A total of 1,815 principals favor interscholastic athletics, 356 oppose them, and 141 fail to indicate one or the other. Thus, 78% of the principals are on record as favorable, 15.4% as opposed, with 6.6% of the principals abstaining.

Of the 1,815 that favor them, 498 report that they favor them only among junior high schools within the school system. Thirty-eight who do not have interscholastic athletics would like to have them. On the other hand, 68 schools not having them would like to have them, but only within the school system.

Of the 356 schools that oppose interscholastic athletics, 213 do not have a program in operation while 143 do.

It is evident that a greater number of schools *have* interscholastic athletics than the number that *favor* them (1,968 to 1,815). The reverse is obvious: The ratio of junior high-school principals opposing interscholastic athletics to those not now having them is 356 to 344. Though the difference in each ratio seems small, it can be regarded as significant and will become increasingly significant if a greater difference develops. (Table 4)

*What is the nation-wide rank order of the athletic teams reported?*

1. Basketball	—1,939 schools	12. 6-man football	— 40
2. Track	—1,404	13. Touch football	— 18
3. Tackle football	—1,384	14. Hockey	— 15
4. Baseball	— 802	15. Flag football	— 9
5. Softball	— 353	16. X-country	— 7
6. Swimming	— 109	17. Gymnastics	— 5
7. Wrestling	— 98	18. Rifle, speedball,	
8. Soccer	— 94	tumbling (2 each)	
9. Tennis	— 87	19. Archery, bowling,	
10. Volleyball	— 87	boxing, horseshoes,	
11. Golf	— 45	skating, skiing (1 each)	

State-by-state data in Table 2 reveal variation from the national totals. For example, California junior high-schools report many more baseball than football teams, while Texas junior high schools have a

greater number of athletic teams than schools reporting from any other state.

The total number of junior high-school interscholastic teams reported by the 1,968 junior high schools responding is 6,509. (Table 2)

*What kinds of athletic teams do junior high-schools have?*

Table 2 shows that junior high schools have interscholastic teams in 26 different kinds of athletics. In order, basketball, track, tackle football, baseball, softball are reported by the 1,968 schools as the most popular sports activities. As track is ordinarily not income producing, its position as the second most common type of junior high-school athletic activity is significant. No doubt the popularity of track is due to the large numbers of youth that can participate. (Table 2)

*To what extent do interscholastic athletics stimulate, or detract from, the intramural program?*

Seven out of ten junior high schools having both interscholastic and intramural programs report that the interscholastic stimulates the intramural program. Three of 10 schools say that the one detracts from the other. Thirty-nine schools reply that they have no intramural athletic program; 747 schools claim to have an extensive program, while 838 say that they have a limited program. In 555 of the reporting schools, players on interscholastic teams cannot play on intramural teams in the same sport. (Table 6)

*How many junior high schools have changed their policy on interscholastic athletics since 1950?*

Eighty per cent have not changed their policy since 1950. Of the 20% (430 schools) that have made a change, 137 have started a program, 55 have expanded it, 96 have curtailed it, 36 have discontinued it, and 106 merely answered "yes." The ratio of expansion to limitation of interscholastic athletics is approximately 3 to 2 schools in favor of expansion. (Table 5)

*How many schools are now (1957) planning a change in policy on interscholastic athletics?*

Only 111 schools out of 2,113 schools responded "yes." Of the 111 indicating a possibility of change, 33 are planning to discontinue or curtail, 66 to expand the program, while 12 schools say they are expanding their intramural program and 7 are discussing the problem with no decision reached as yet. (Table 6)

*At what time in the day are interscholastic contests scheduled by schools?*

The 2,179 junior high schools responding to this item report as follows: (Table 8)

Afternoon only	-52% of the schools
Both afternoon and night	-31% of the schools
Night only	-10% of the schools
Saturday morning only	-7% of the schools

*Do junior high schools more often compete against schools within or outside the school district?*

As might be expected, the majority of schools (62%) schedule interscholastic sports with teams from schools outside the school district or school system. Those schools that restrict athletic competition to schools within the district constitute 36%, while 2% report "both". (Table 7)

*How are interscholastic athletics financed by junior high schools?*

Schools report a variety of ways to finance athletics. The commonest way to do so is:

Combination of sale of tickets and Board of Education budget	-37% of the schools
Board of Education budget only	-30% of the schools
Sale of tickets only	-23.6% of the schools

Other methods include, in order of popularity, Athletic Association, activity funds, student body, school funds, and a combination of Board and school funds. (Table 9)

*What arrangements are made for providing insurance against injury to players on athletic teams by junior high-schools?*

In this important item, schools reveal a variety of practices. A total of 1,903 schools supplied the following information: (Table 10)

We do not have any insurance provided	-18% of the schools
We do provide insurance:	
School pays entire premium	-14% of the schools
Participant pays entire premium	-53.4%
School and participant share payment of premium	- 6.3%
Method not indicated	- 7.3%

*Do schools provide players with uniforms and equipment?*

Yes, 94% of the responding schools furnish uniforms and equipment to players on interscholastic athletic teams. The equipment may or may not include shoes; in fact, many schools expect the participant to supply his own shoes, but they provide all other equipment. (Table 11)

*Do 9th-grade pupils in junior high schools play on senior high-school teams?*

No, say 55.2% of the responding schools; the remaining 44.8% of the schools permit junior high 9th-grade pupils to play in the following major senior high athletic teams: (Table 13)

Football	-162 or 7% of all schools
Basketball	-140 or 6.1%
Track	-111 or 4.8%
Baseball	-105 or 4.6%

*Do schools insist on eligibility standards for participants in interscholastic athletics and, if so, whose standards?*

Only 3% of junior high schools engaging in athletic competition say they have no rules for eligibility of participants; 40% abide by standards of the state athletic association; 29% develop standards for their own

junior high school, and 23% conform to eligibility standards set by their school system. The remaining schools use a variety of procedures, including standards set by a junior high-school athletic association, a junior high-school conference or league, or a county group. (Table 12)

*How are junior high interscholastic teams transported to out-of-town games?*

The 2,283 replies to this item indicate that:

- 44.7% of the schools use school buses
- 20.8% use commercial transportation
- 20% use private automobiles

Practically all of the remaining schools report no out-of-town games. (Table 14)

*Do schools transport pupils other than players to out-of-town interscholastic contests? If so, do they assume responsibility for them?*

About 72.5% of the schools arrange for student body transportation to out-of-town games, but only 26.4% of the schools assume responsibility for the pupils on the way and at the game. (Table 15)

*What unsatisfactory experiences have junior high schools had with interscholastic athletic programs?*

Of 2,276 responding schools, 67.3% report that they have had no really unsatisfactory experiences. A breakdown of the 32.7% reporting unsatisfactory experience follows: (Table 17)

Undesirable rivalry between schools	-6.4%
Unsatisfactory attitudes among players	-4.4%
Excessive cost to school	-4.9%
Bodily injury and strain	-5.7%
Night games undesirable	-4.7%
Athletics interferes with pupil studies	-4.0%
Trouble with spectators	} -Less than 1% each
Trouble over awards	
Trouble with officials	

*What interscholastic athletics are there for girls in junior high-school programs?*

Of 1,943 schools reporting, 80% do not schedule any interscholastic athletics for girls. The 20% of the schools that do so, have the following number of girls' teams: (Table 20)

Basketball	-192 schools	Hockey	-32
Softball	-125 schools	Swimming	-11
Volleyball	-100 schools	Tennis	-33
Track	-24 schools	Other	-25

*How many junior high schools schedule interscholastic play days for girls?*

Of 1,911 schools replying to this item, 72.5% do not schedule interscholastic play days for girls. However, the practice is common in California, Florida, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, and Washington (state) junior high schools. (Table 20)



TABLE A. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING BY GRADES IN SCHOOL AND BY STATE

State	No. of Schools Responding	Grades in School*						
		7-9	7-8	7-10	8-9	6-8	6-9	Other
Alabama.....	55	44	7	1				3
Arizona.....	9	4	4			1		
Arkansas.....	18	17	1					
California.....	196	179	13	3	1			
Colorado.....	54	37	17					
Connecticut.....	30	25	4	1				
Delaware.....	8	7		1				
District of Columbia.....	11	11						
Florida.....	74	57	9	2	1			5
Georgia.....	18	5	6		4	1		2
Idaho.....	23	10	10	3				
Illinois.....	127	31	91		1	3		1
Indiana.....	49	18	25	4		2		
Iowa.....	84	41	43					
Kansas.....	47	33	11	3				
Kentucky.....	22	20	1	1				
Louisiana.....	32	26	4					2
Maine.....	6	6						
Maryland.....	34	31	2				1	
Massachusetts.....	89	58	25	1			1	4
Michigan.....	135	88	43	1		1	1	1
Minnesota.....	57	53						4
Mississippi.....	13	11	1	1				
Missouri.....	24	16	7					1
Montana.....	14	9	5					
Nebraska.....	16	12	3		1			
New Hampshire.....	6	2	4					
New Jersey.....	58	53	3	2				
New Mexico.....	28	21	6	1				
New York.....	87	78	1	5				3
North Carolina.....	32	23	2	1		1	2	3
North Dakota.....	9	8	1					
Ohio.....	85	79	2					4
Oklahoma.....	61	50	7	2	1	1		
Oregon.....	34	16	18					
Pennsylvania.....	133	116	2	15				
Rhode Island.....	17	17						
South Carolina.....	20	9	9		1			1
South Dakota.....	13	7	4		1			1
Tennessee.....	27	23	2			1		1
Texas.....	183	130	31		2	12	7	1
Utah.....	40	39		1				
Vermont.....	2	2						
Virginia.....	22	15	4		2	1		
Washington.....	69	64	4					1
West Virginia.....	46	41	5					
Wisconsin.....	40	36	2	1			1	
Wyoming.....	8		7			1		
Territory of Hawaii..	13	12						1
TOTAL.....	2278	1690	446	50	15	25	13	39

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE B. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING,  
BY SIZE OF ENROLLMENT AND BY STATE

State	No. of Schools Responding	Enrollment*		
		0-299	300-999	1000 and over
Alabama.....	54	29	21	4
Arizona.....	9		8	1
Arkansas.....	16	2	10	4
California.....	194	5	70	119
Colorado.....	53	18	24	11
Connecticut.....	37	5	29	3
Delaware.....	8	2	5	1
District of Columbia.....	10		6	4
Florida.....	71	8	25	38
Georgia.....	18	2	14	2
Idaho.....	21	9	11	1
Illinois.....	120	52	58	10
Indiana.....	49	9	35	5
Iowa.....	85	50	31	4
Kansas.....	45	15	26	4
Kentucky.....	22	2	16	4
Louisiana.....	34	2	26	6
Maine.....	6		6	
Maryland.....	32	4	15	13
Massachusetts.....	88	22	57	9
Michigan.....	130	36	76	18
Minnesota.....	55	10	34	11
Mississippi.....	11	2	9	1
Missouri.....	24	4	13	7
Montana.....	13	5	7	1
Nebraska.....	15	4	10	1
New Hampshire.....	6	2	3	1
New Jersey.....	57	9	40	8
New Mexico.....	28	5	22	1
New York.....	91	3	41	47
North Carolina.....	32	1	23	8
North Dakota.....	9	3	6	
Ohio.....	81	2	56	23
Oklahoma.....	61	23	26	12
Oregon.....	34	7	25	2
Pennsylvania.....	131	15	93	23
Rhode Island.....	16	1	11	4
South Carolina.....	18	2	13	3
South Dakota.....	11	5	6	
Tennessee.....	27	5	20	2
Texas.....	183	45	100	38
Utah.....	39	7	26	6
Vermont.....	2		2	
Virginia.....	22	3	15	4
Washington.....	69	6	47	16
West Virginia.....	45	18	23	4
Wisconsin.....	39	5	28	6
Wyoming.....	8	7	1	
Territory of Hawaii.....	12	4	2	6
TOTAL.....	2241	475	1271	496

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE C. TOTAL ENROLLMENT OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING,  
BY SIZE\* OF ENROLLMENT AND BY STATE

State	0-299	300-999	1000 and over	Total Enrollment
Alabama.....	5,148	10,429	4,625	20,202
Arizona.....		4,969	1,350	6,319
Arkansas.....	166	6,362	4,677	11,205
California.....	1,030	52,181	186,421	239,632
Colorado.....	3,554	15,237	13,629	32,420
Connecticut.....	580	15,029	2,580	18,189
Delaware.....	315	2,390	1,025	3,730
District of Columbia.....		4,323	4,810	9,133
Florida.....	1,392	17,310	51,511	70,213
Georgia.....	535	9,384	2,300	12,219
Idaho.....	1,785	6,446	1,061	9,292
Illinois.....	7,880	52,054	12,762	52,696
Indiana.....	1,986	17,770	6,508	26,264
Iowa.....	7,574	19,729	4,400	31,703
Kansas.....	2,561	15,724	5,061	23,346
Kentucky.....	382	10,354	4,997	15,733
Louisiana.....	403	13,851	6,949	21,203
Maine.....		3,336		3,336
Maryland.....	490	11,134	22,512	34,136
Massachusetts.....	3,845	36,116	10,111	50,072
Michigan.....	6,524	49,231	23,776	79,531
Minnesota.....	2,190	21,014	13,831	37,035
Mississippi.....	353	5,175	1,110	6,638
Missouri.....	971	8,926	9,187	19,084
Montana.....	780	4,654	1,094	6,528
Nebraska.....	678	4,216	1,060	5,954
New Hampshire.....	306	1,745	1,183	3,234
New Jersey.....	1,916	23,784	10,902	36,602
New Mexico.....	1,113	14,813	1,171	17,097
New York.....	743	27,664	65,547	93,954
North Carolina.....	208	13,672	9,446	23,326
North Dakota.....	318	3,598		3,916
Ohio.....	350	35,984	31,810	68,144
Oklahoma.....	3,827	14,288	14,688	32,803
Oregon.....	1,506	11,881	3,115	16,502
Pennsylvania.....	2,998	57,822	32,109	92,929
Rhode Island.....	220	7,021	4,340	11,581
South Carolina.....	568	7,594	3,591	11,753
South Dakota.....	828	2,991		3,819
Tennessee.....	1,039	12,883	2,004	15,926
Texas.....	9,556	62,545	46,417	118,518
Utah.....	1,129	15,282	7,009	23,420
Vermont.....	861			861
Virginia.....	505	9,930	5,135	15,570
Washington.....	1,081	29,147	20,080	50,308
West Virginia.....	3,812	12,842	4,168	20,822
Wisconsin.....	865	16,867	7,117	24,849
Wyoming.....	1,175	550		1,725
Territory of Hawaii.....	1,505	1,655	8,560	11,720
TOTAL.....	87,551	781,902	675,739	1,545,192

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 1. NUMBER\* OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS HAVING  
AND NOT HAVING INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS AND ATTITUDES  
OF PRINCIPALS TOWARD THEM, BY STATE

State	Have Them and Favor Them	Have Them and Favor Them Only Among Schools in Local School System	Have Them but Oppose Them	Do Not Have Them and Favor Them	Do Not Have Them and Oppose Them	Do Not Have Them Only Among Schools in Local School System	Do Not Have Them and Oppose Them	Have Them but Made No Comment	Do Not Have Them but Made No Comment	Total
Alabama.....	25	20	1	4	2	1	4			57
Arizona.....	4	1				1	3			9
Arkansas.....	12	3	1	1			2			19
California.....	40	61	7	1	12	59	11	4		195
Colorado.....	30	9	3		1	10	1			54
Connecticut.....	8	9	2	1	2	3	3	2		30
Delaware.....	4					2	2			8
District of Columbia.....	2	5			1	1	2			11
Florida.....	23	34	3	1	3	9	2			75
Georgia.....	10	6		1				1		18
Idaho.....	15	2	2	1	1	2				23
Illinois.....	91	18	6	1	2	6	3			128
Indiana.....	44	3	1				2			50
Iowa.....	43	10	15	1	1	5	10			85
Kansas.....	33	13	2			1	1			50
Kentucky.....	12	4	1		1	4				22
Louisiana.....	8	19	2			1	2			32
Maine.....	2		3		1					6
Maryland.....	4	13	1	1	4	11				34
Massachusetts.....	54	13	7	4	3	2	6	1		90
Michigan.....	75	24	13	3	5	12	9			141
Minnesota.....	21	11	8		2	12	3			57
Mississippi.....	12	1								13
Missouri.....	14	5	1		2	2				24
Montana.....	6	3	4				1			14
Nebraska.....	13		1			2				16
New Hampshire.....	3	1				1		1		6
New Jersey.....	29	12	4	2	2	4	4	1		58
New Mexico.....	23	4	1							28
New York.....	34	22	4	3	6	18	3	1		91
North Carolina.....	19	9	1		2	1				32
North Dakota.....	5	2	2							9
Ohio.....	44	27	2	1	1	5	6			86
Oklahoma.....	42	2	5			8	3	1		61
Oregon.....	24	7	2			1				34
Pennsylvania.....	98	13	7	2		4	13			137
Rhode Island.....	8	5	1		1			2		17
South Carolina.....	8	3	1	3	2	1	1	1		20
South Dakota.....	6	2	1		1	1	2			13
Tennessee.....	14	6	4			1	2			27
Texas.....	137	27	8	3	1	2	9	1		188
Utah.....	5	15	2	1	7	9	1	1		41
Vermont.....	1		1							2
Virginia.....	10	8	1	1	1	2				23
Washington.....	51	8	2			4	3	2		70
West Virginia.....	23	16	6	1		1	1			48
Wisconsin.....	20	10	4			2		3		39
Wyoming.....		3					1			9
Territory of Hawaii.....	2	4		1	1	2		3		13
TOTAL.....	1211	498	143	38	68	213	116	25		2313

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 2. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTING DIFFERENT KINDS OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC TEAMS,\* BY STATE

State	Tackle Football	Baseball	Softball	Basketball	Track	Swimming	Wrestling	Soccer	Tennis	Volleyball	Other <sup>1</sup>
Alabama	19	25	29	48	12	1		1		3	
Arizona	6	5	2	8	6	2				1	1
Arkansas	18	2		18	18				1		
California	57	97	18	120	117	9		12	5	8	20
Colorado	40	10	4	38	31		22			1	1
Connecticut	6	19	1	20	10			8			
Delaware		5	1	6	4	1		2			
District of Columbia				9	9						
Florida	34	27	27	62	48	16		4	3	14	7
Georgia	14	5	3	16	11				1		2
Idaho	15	10	6	20	7		2		1		3
Illinois	44	27	43	117	88	5	2		2	2	11
Indiana	39	15	5	50	44	1	4				3
Iowa	71	15	6	76	68	2	19		1		1
Kansas	34	1	4	49	46		1		2		
Kentucky	10	4	1	19	10				1		1
Louisiana	27	15	10	31	24					3	5
Maine	4	3		5	2						2
Maryland		9	9	17	6					2	1
Massachusetts	54	75	11	76	35			6	2	2	13
Michigan	94	69	18	129	79	28	5	7	7	3	10
Minnesota	37	20	6	42	30	4	9		1		9
Mississippi	13	1	1	13	8						
Missouri	15			20	14				1	1	2
Montana	10	1		13	8						
Nebraska	13	1		14	14						
New Hampshire	1	3	1	3							1
New Jersey	17	35	3	45	20	2	1	16			1
New Mexico	25	10	3	27	22	2	2		2		3
New York	27	22	20	57	39	5	4	8		5	3
North Carolina	23	19	1	28	7	2					
North Dakota	6	1		9	6						
Ohio	59	28	10	79	66	4	4	1	3	3	3
Oklahoma	46	26	6	51	38	1	2		7	1	3
Oregon	23	24	2	32	28	2	4	2		1	2
Pennsylvania	98	37	12	129	66	12	15	18	2	12	6
Rhode Island	9	10	3	13	10						
South Carolina	10	4	2	11	4					1	1
South Dakota	11		1	11	10						
Tennessee	13	11	8	27	18						7
Texas	177	24	41	180	173	6			28	14	14
Utah	7	13	6	21	14					6	2
Vermont	1	1	1	2	1			1			
Virginia	14	11	7	19	8			1	2	1	1
Washington	62	53	3	64	63	1			8		8
West Virginia	38	3	13	45	24				2		2
Wisconsin	33	4	2	35	26	2			5	2	5
Wyoming	7		1	9	7		1				
Territory of Hawaii	3	2	2	6	5	1	1	1		1	
TOTAL	1384	802	353	1939	1404	109	98	94	87	87	152

<sup>1</sup>OTHER

Touch Football—18

Rifle—2

Gymnastics—5

Skating, Boxing, Archery, Horseshoes, Skiing, and Bowling, each 1 school.

Flag Football—9

Golf—45

Speedball—2

X-Country—7

Tumbling—2

Hockey—15

6-Man Football—40

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 3. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING, BY TYPE OF ATHLETIC TEAMS AND BY SIZE\* OF SCHOOL

<i>Athletic Teams</i>	<i>Size of School*</i>				
	<i>0-199</i>	<i>200-499</i>	<i>500-999</i>	<i>1000-1499</i>	<i>1500 and over</i>
Football.....	122	370	482	213	33
6-Man Football.....	2	5	20	10	3
Baseball.....	92	176	335	165	23
Softball.....	54	127	96	39	22
Basketball.....	240	520	740	280	53
Track.....	136	340	570	242	48
Swimming.....	3	7	49	36	11
Wrestling.....	5	18	44	21	4
Soccer.....	5	24	37	18	4
Volleyball.....	9	21	33	13	6
Tennis.....	3	15	45	24	1
Touch Football.....	3	4	5	6	
Golf.....	1	3	27	11	1
Hockey.....		3	10	1	
Other.....	4	3	12	11	1

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.



TABLE 4. IMPACT OF INTERSCHOLASTIC (IS) ATHLETICS\* ON THE INTRAMURAL (IM), AS REPORTED BY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS RESPONDING, BY STATE

State	We Have an Extensive Program	We Have a Limited Program	Players on IS Teams Cannot Play on IM Teams in Same Sport	IS Program Stimulates IM Program	IS Program Detracts from IM Program	Have no Intramural Program
Alabama	3	20	2	15	5	4
Arizona	5	3	3	2		
Arkansas	4	9	7	4	2	
California	68	39	28	54	6	1
Colorado	14	22	9	10	6	1
Connecticut	12	7	3	6	1	
Delaware	1	2	2	3		
District of Columbia	6	2		4	1	
Florida	28	18	8	22	2	3
Georgia	3	12	2	5	1	1
Idaho	6	9	5	7	1	2
Illinois	41	51	35	36	11	3
Indiana	17	23	25	25	3	4
Iowa	19	33	19	19	11	8
Kansas	23	18	17	20	6	1
Kentucky	7	9	5	6	1	
Louisiana	7	13	3	12	4	
Maine	1	3	2	1	4	
Maryland	9	7	5	9		
Massachusetts	35	32	23	23	6	
Michigan	35	60	34	27	19	
Minnesota	15	24	16	16	4	
Mississippi	4	6	2	5	1	
Missouri	14	5	9	6		
Montana	7	2	2	4	2	
Nebraska	1	9	3	6	1	
New Hampshire	1	1		1		
New Jersey	27	21	13	17	4	
New Mexico	9	11	8	15	2	1
New York	42	14	16	24	3	
North Carolina	13	9	4	12	2	
North Dakota	4	4	1	1		
Ohio	33	38	28	21	11	
Oklahoma	10	28	15	18	9	
Oregon	20	10	16	9	2	
Pennsylvania	52	57	42	33	14	4
Rhode Island	4	4	1	3	3	
South Carolina	4	3	2	7	1	
South Dakota	4	5	3	2	3	
Tennessee	9	12	12	9	3	
Texas	42	96	44	45	21	4
Utah	10	10	5	10	2	
Vermont	1	1	1			
Virginia	8	8	3	7		
Washington	41	16	36	32	4	
West Virginia	13	29	15	8	5	1
Wisconsin	12	16	17	7	8	1
Wyoming	2	5	3	3		
Territory of Hawaii	1	2		1	1	
TOTAL	747	838	555	632	196	39

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 5. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS HAVING CHANGED POLICY\* ON INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS SINCE 1950, BY STATE

State	No	Yes But no Indication How	Change in Policy Since 1950				
			Discontinued Program	Started Program	Limited Program	Expanded Program	Other
Alabama.....	44	2	2	3			1
Arizona.....	5	1	1	1			1
Arkansas.....	15	2			1		1
California.....	143	24	2	12		1	
Colorado.....	38	2	1	5	4		3
Connecticut.....	25	5					
Delaware.....	6						
District of Columbia.....	8						1
Florida.....	58	2	1	10			
Georgia.....	15	1					2
Idaho.....	18	1	1	1	1	3	
Illinois.....	96	2	1	2	14	3	1
Indiana.....	40	8			3	4	1
Iowa.....	55	1		6	11	4	1
Kansas.....	39	3		1	3	4	
Kentucky.....	17	2		3		1	
Louisiana.....	27			1	1		
Maine.....	6						
Maryland.....	24	2	4	3	1		
Massachusetts.....	76	3		6	1	1	
Michigan.....	86		6	15	8	9	1
Minnesota.....	45		1	3	4		1
Mississippi.....	11	1		1			
Missouri.....	17		1	4	2		
Montana.....	11		1	1			
Nebraska.....	12				3	1	
New Hampshire.....	6						
New Jersey.....	46	2		1	2	1	
New Mexico.....	20	1			2	3	1
New York.....	68	2	3	12	2	2	1
North Carolina.....	24		1	4	1	1	
North Dakota.....	7				1		
Ohio.....	70			5	1	1	1
Oklahoma.....	48	1	1	4	4		1
Oregon.....	27	1			5		
Pennsylvania.....	105	3	3	7	3	3	1
Rhode Island.....	12		1		1	1	
South Carolina.....	14		1	3			
South Dakota.....	8	1		1	1	1	
Tennessee.....	20		1	3	1	1	2
Texas.....	152	1	1	9	6	5	3
Utah.....	37	1	1				
Vermont.....	2						
Virginia.....	19		1	2			1
Washington.....	52	2		2	4	4	2
West Virginia.....	39	1		1	2		
Wisconsin.....	30	1		2	3	1	1
Wyoming.....	5			1			1
Territory of Hawaii.....	8			2			
TOTAL.....	1756	79	36	157	96	55	29

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 6. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS NOW PLANNING A CHANGE IN POLICY ON INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS,\* BY STATE

State	No.	Discontinue Program	Begin Program	Limit Program	Expand Program	More Intramural	Discussing Problem	Other
Alabama	50				1			2
Arizona	7				1			
Arkansas	17			1				
California	167		5	1	2			2
Colorado	50			1	1			1
Connecticut	28							
Delaware	6							
District of Columbia	9			1				
Florida	69						1	1
Georgia	17		1					
Idaho	22							
Illinois	110	2	1	4	3	2	1	
Indiana	43				1	1		
Iowa	71				3	1		
Kansas	44			3				1
Kentucky	21		1					
Louisiana	30							
Maine	6							
Maryland	32		1	1				
Massachusetts	81				4			
Michigan	105	2	1	3	10		1	2
Minnesota	50	1		1	1	2		
Mississippi	13							
Missouri	22			2				1
Montana	12							
Nebraska	15			1				
New Hampshire	5		1					
New Jersey	46		2	1	1		1	
New Mexico	23				3	1		
New York	88				2			
North Carolina	29				1			
North Dakota	8							
Ohio	50				2			2
Oklahoma	55				1			1
Oregon	26	1		1	2			1
Pennsylvania	112		1	1	4			1
Rhode Island	14				1			1
South Carolina	15		1					
South Dakota	11				1			
Tennessee	23				1	1		
Texas	167			2				3
Utah	36				1	1	3	
Vermont	2							
Virginia	21	1						
Washington	63		1					
West Virginia	36			2	1			
Wisconsin	32					2		
Wyoming	7				1			
Territory of Hawaii	8		1			1		2
TOTAL	1974	7	17	26	49	12	7	21

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 7. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS WITHIN AND OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL SYSTEM WITH WHICH RESPONDING SCHOOLS COMPETE IN INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS,\* BY STATE

State	Only with Schools Within School System	With Schools Outside School System	Both
Alabama	50	22	4
Arizona	3	7	1
Arkansas	2	13	
California	88	36	4
Colorado	12	33	3
Connecticut	10	11	1
Delaware	1	6	2
District of Columbia	8	1	
Florida	50	13	
Georgia	7	11	
Idaho	7	17	
Illinois	17	109	7
Indiana	9	48	
Iowa	16	70	1
Kansas	16	36	
Kentucky	7	12	
Louisiana	24	7	
Maine		5	
Maryland	15	3	
Massachusetts	28	61	3
Michigan	35	93	1
Minnesota	14	33	6
Mississippi	1	11	1
Missouri	4	14	3
Montana	1	11	1
Nebraska	3	13	
New Hampshire		3	
New Jersey	15	32	1
New Mexico	7	21	
New York	40	32	2
North Carolina	6	18	1
North Dakota	2	7	
Ohio	47	49	4
Oklahoma	5	49	1
Oregon	9	27	1
Pennsylvania	34	115	
Rhode Island	6	7	1
South Carolina	3	10	1
South Dakota	2	9	
Tennessee	17	15	
Texas	45	136	3
Utah	21	4	
Vermont		2	
Virginia	14	9	
Washington	11	52	2
West Virginia	34	17	1
Wisconsin	22	24	1
Wyoming	3	8	
Territory of Hawaii	5	2	1
TOTAL	776	1344	58

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 8. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTING WHEN INTERSCHOLASTIC GAMES\* ARE PLAYED, BY STATE

<i>State</i>	<i>Afternoon</i>	<i>Night</i>	<i>Both Night and Daytime</i>	<i>Saturday Morning</i>
Alabama	10	6	34	3
Arizona	5		2	1
Arkansas	1	4	14	
California	95		10	14
Colorado	23		19	12
Connecticut	20		2	1
Delaware	5		1	
District of Columbia	9			
Florida	28	10	28	
Georgia	4	2	11	1
Idaho	13	3	7	
Illinois	62	38	31	10
Indiana	6	13	29	
Iowa	31	8	38	15
Kansas	36	9	15	
Kentucky	5	1	13	1
Louisiana	17	3	15	
Maine	4	1	1	
Maryland	14	1	3	
Massachusetts	78		1	5
Michigan	78	5	41	8
Minnesota	27	4	12	3
Mississippi	5	2	6	
Missouri	12	3	3	4
Montana	7	6	3	2
Nebraska	7	1	6	
New Hampshire	3			
New Jersey	46		2	5
New Mexico	14	7	10	4
New York	55		6	10
North Carolina	13	4	15	
North Dakota	3	2	4	
Ohio	62		13	6
Oklahoma	12	18	29	
Oregon	21		12	7
Pennsylvania	94	2	36	9
Rhode Island	14			
South Carolina	2		9	
South Dakota	8		3	2
Tennessee	16	1	12	1
Texas	46	35	108	15
Utah	21			
Vermont	2			
Virginia	13		6	1
Washington	36	1	28	2
West Virginia	15	23	28	1
Wisconsin	27	2	5	3
Wyoming	4		5	7
Territory of Hawaii	5		1	
TOTAL	1134	215	677	153

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 9. SCHOOLS REPORTING METHODS BY WHICH INTER-SCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS\* ARE FINANCED, BY STATE

State	Board of Education budget only	Sale of tickets only	Combination Board budget and sale of tickets	School funds	Student body	Board and school	Athletic ass'n	Activity funds
Alabama	9	28	7	13	1		1	
Arizona	5						1	1
Arkansas		8	9	1				
California	71	3	16		20	14		1
Colorado	17	4	18		1	1		
Connecticut	13	1	5			1		
Delaware	2	1	1		1			
District of Columbia		2	2	3				
Florida	11	27	11	7		1	1	2
Georgia	2	5	2	1			5	1
Idaho	6	5	4		1	4	1	
Illinois	21	14	75	2			1	6
Indiana	1	34	10				1	
Iowa	18	19	19			2	13	
Kansas	6	17	25				1	
Kentucky	2	12	5					
Louisiana	3	9	13					1
Maine	1	1		1				
Maryland	3	2	12	1				
Massachusetts	60	2	11	1			1	
Michigan	54	10	49					2
Minnesota	23	4	14				2	
Mississippi	1	1	11					
Missouri	5	6	7		1	1		
Montana	5	2	4					
Nebraska	3	3	7					
New Hampshire	2							
New Jersey	40	2	8			1		
New Mexico	5	6	15					
New York	29	6	19	1			1	
North Carolina	5	10	9				1	
North Dakota	3	4	1					
Ohio	1	48	5				2	1
Oklahoma	1	18	26				1	1
Oregon	10	2	12		4	1		3
Pennsylvania	31	11	81	1	1		7	4
Rhode Island	9		1					
South Carolina	2	3	4					
South Dakota	7		4					
Tennessee		12	12					1
Texas	47	14	118					2
Utah	9	3	2		2			2
Vermont	1							1
Virginia	2	7	5				1	2
Washington		35	2		3			7
West Virginia	2	34	5					
Wisconsin	14	1	17				1	
Wyoming	4	2	3					
Territory of Hawaii		2	2					
TOTAL	566	440	688	32	35	26	42	38

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.



TABLE 10. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTING PROVISION OF INSURANCE FOR PLAYERS ON INTERSCHOLASTIC TEAMS,\* BY STATE

State	No	Yes	School pays entire premium	Participant pays entire premium	School and participant pay premium
Alabama	13	1	3	28	4
Arizona	1			7	
Arkansas	1	2	4	7	3
California	38	4	11	57	5
Colorado	3	3	10	27	
Connecticut	1	4	3	12	2
Delaware	2			3	1
District of Columbia				9	
Florida	7	6	2	43	3
Georgia	1	1	3	11	
Idaho	4	1		15	
Illinois	10	1	12	89	8
Indiana	26	1	2	18	1
Iowa	4	9		51	12
Kansas	10	2	8	8	4
Kentucky	5		5	9	
Louisiana	6		3	22	
Maine				4	1
Maryland	3	2		13	
Massachusetts	5	3	18	48	3
Michigan	22	8	2	83	3
Minnesota	4	3	5	27	3
Mississippi	6			5	1
Missouri	3		2	14	1
Montana	1		3	6	3
Nebraska	1		3	7	3
New Hampshire			3		
New Jersey	4	4	16	21	2
New Mexico	6	1	3	12	4
New York	27	4	18	11	2
North Carolina			4	22	2
North Dakota	1	2	5	1	
Ohio	25	8	9	30	5
Oklahoma	12	1	11	12	12
Oregon	1	3	2	22	3
Pennsylvania	30	6	21	59	8
Rhode Island	2	4		7	
South Carolina	1		2	8	
South Dakota	1		4	5	1
Tennessee	7	2		17	
Texas	31	33	62	48	5
Utah	4	2	1	11	4
Vermont				2	
Virginia	3	1	3	10	1
Washington		6	1	51	3
West Virginia	10	7	3	25	
Wisconsin		4	4	23	4
Wyoming	1		4	2	2
Territory of Hawaii			1	4	
TOTAL	343	139	276	1026	119

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 11. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS PROVIDING UNIFORMS AND EQUIPMENT TO PLAYERS ON INTERSCHOLASTIC TEAMS,\* BY STATE

State	Provided by the school	Provided by pupils	Provided by school and pupils	Provided by student body	Provided by ath. ass'n	Other
Alabama	44	1	4			
Arizona	8					
Arkansas	18					1
California	97	4	5	15		7
Colorado	34		7			2
Connecticut	18	1	1		1	2
Delaware	5	1				
District of Columbia	9		1			
Florida	54	1	3		1	2
Georgia	13		1		1	1
Idaho	19					1
Illinois	111	1	6			1
Indiana	44		3		1	
Iowa	73		1		3	1
Kansas	46		2			
Kentucky	18		1			
Louisiana	30					
Maine	5					
Maryland	15		3			
Massachusetts	74		3			1
Michigan	113	3	5			
Minnesota	41	1	1			
Mississippi	13					
Missouri	20					
Montana	12					1
Nebraska	13		1			
New Hampshire	3					
New Jersey	45	1	1			1
New Mexico	26					1
New York	56	1	3	1		
North Carolina	28	1				1
North Dakota	9	1	1		2	1
Ohio	66					
Oklahoma	48		1		1	1
Oregon	30		2			1
Pennsylvania	128			1	4	
Rhode Island	11		1			2
South Carolina	10					1
South Dakota	10	1				
Tennessee	23					4
Texas	175		1			
Utah	17	3	3			
Vermont	1					1
Virginia	17		1			1
Washington	45		1	6		1
West Virginia	40		2			2
Wisconsin	32				1	2
Wyoming	9					
Territory of Hawaii	2	1	1			1
TOTAL	1778	22	66	23	15	41

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 12. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTING ELIGIBILITY RULES,\* BY TYPE AND BY STATE

State	No	Yes	State athletic association	Junior high school	School system	Junior HS ath. association	Junior HS league	Conference	Other
Alabama	1	3	24	9	15	3			
Arizona			2	4	3				
Arkansas			18	4	3				
California	9	3	17	52	56		2		1
Colorado	4		3	30	6				
Connecticut	4	1	2	12	4				1
Delaware	1		5		2				
District of Columbia				7	3				
Florida	1	9	18	14	27		1	1	3
Georgia		2	1	8	4				
Idaho		1	9	9	4				
Illinois	5	3	32	51	27	3	2	4	3
Indiana		1	12	32	14				
Iowa	3	3	55	23	14				
Kansas			40	8	7				1
Kentucky	2		6	3	3	2			
Louisiana			6	11	14				
Maine				5					
Maryland		1	4	10	10				
Massachusetts	8	2	7	34	29				
Michigan	2	2	99	28	23		1		
Minnesota	7		20	12	12			3	
Mississippi			10	2	3				
Missouri	2		6	10	4				
Montana	1		6	6	3				
Nebraska			8	6	2				1
New Hampshire			1	1			1		
New Jersey		2	9	23	15	1			1
New Mexico		1	5	10	7				
New York	7		14	30	26				1
North Carolina			24	7	2				2
North Dakota		1	6		2			1	
Ohio	2	9	42	17	26				1
Oklahoma		1	36	13	8			1	
Oregon	1	2	6	17	8		1		
Pennsylvania	3	8	95	23	20				3
Rhode Island	2	1	5	6	1				
South Carolina	1		5	7	3				
South Dakota			6	5	1				
Tennessee		5	13	6	4				1
Texas	1	7	66	33	43				
Utah	1		2	13	9				
Vermont	1			1					
Virginia	1		2	6	10				
Washington	1		59	14	5				1
West Virginia		3	35	5	5				
Wisconsin	2		19	15	13				1
Wyoming	1		2	4	3				1
Territory of Hawaii	1				5				
TOTAL	75	71	862	646	508	9	8	10	22

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 13. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTING NINTH GRADERS PARTICIPATING ON SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEAMS,\* AND THE SPORTS IN WHICH THEY PARTICIPATE, BY STATE

State	They do not participate	They participate in some sports	Sofball	Basketball	Football	Track	Baseball	Swimming	Tennis	Wrestling	Golf	Other
Alabama.....	32	3	2	2	2	1	2					
Arizona.....	1	2		1	1							
Arkansas.....	15	1										1
California.....	107	3		2	3	2	3	1	1			
Colorado.....	26	5		5	5	4	2			4		
Connecticut.....	19											
Delaware.....	4	1		1		1	1					
Dist. of Columbia.....	9											
Florida.....	38	6		4	7	5	5	3	2		2	3
Georgia.....	4	4	1	3	4	3	2					
Idaho.....	12	4		3	4	4	4			1		
Illinois.....	31	2		12	7	7	6					1
Indiana.....	18	11		5	6	5	3				1	1
Iowa.....	36	31	2	12	14	9	11	2	3	6	6	
Kansas.....	39	1		1	1	1			1		1	
Kentucky.....	11	4		5	5	4	5		1		1	
Louisiana.....	25	1										
Maine.....	3	2		1	2	1	1	1			1	1
Maryland.....	14	1										
Massachusetts.....	50	12	1	2	3	1	2					
Michigan.....	77	31		9	5	3	4		1			
Minnesota.....	17	26		11	12	7	6	2	1	5		2
Mississippi.....	7	6	1	1								
Missouri.....	5	10		2	6	5	3	1	2	2	2	
Montana.....	6	3										
Nebraska.....	6	4		2	2	5	3	1	2	2	2	
New Hampshire.....	1											
New Jersey.....	43	2			1							
New Mexico.....	15	8		2	3	3			1			
New York.....	39	20		10	14	10	8	2	6	4	1	4
North Carolina.....	25	2										
North Dakota.....	6	3		1	1		1					
Ohio.....	75	2			2							
Oklahoma.....	36	15	1	6	10	2	6					
Oregon.....	15	5								1		
Pennsylvania.....	75	49		14	21	12	15	6	3	8	4	6
Rhode Island.....	11	1										
South Carolina.....	4	4		1	1		1					
South Dakota.....	5	5										
Tennessee.....	19	4	1	2	2	1	1		1		1	
Texas.....	132	37	3	14	12	9	5		2		1	1
Utah.....	22											
Vermont.....	1	1		1			1					
Virginia.....	5	8		2	5	1	2					
Washington.....	54	5		1	1	2	2		3	1	1	
West Virginia.....	40	1										
Wisconsin.....	24	9		1		2		1	1		1	
Wyoming.....	1	6		1		1		1		1		
Territory of Hawaii.....	4											
TOTAL.....	1264	361	12	140	162	111	105	21	31	37	25	20

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 14. MEANS BY WHICH PLAYERS ON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL INTERSCHOLASTIC TEAMS\* ARE TRANSPORTED TO OUT-OF-TOWN GAMES, BY STATE

State	Commercial transportation	School buses	Private cars	Other	No out-of-town games
Alabama.....	4	17	32	1	4
Arizona.....		6			1
Arkansas.....	8	10	4		3
California.....	11	53	13	1	46
Colorado.....	3	27	21	2	21
Connecticut.....	3	11	5		5
Delaware.....	2	4	2		
District of Columbia.....			2		7
Florida.....	3	25	25	2	18
Georgia.....	2	18	6		2
Idaho.....	6	16	2		1
Illinois.....	20	84	32		1
Indiana.....	21	23	18		1
Iowa.....	12	53	27	1	5
Kansas.....	10	21	19		8
Kentucky.....	5	9	2		4
Louisiana.....	1	15	3	2	9
Montana.....	6	4	6		
Maine.....	3	4			
Maryland.....	6	11	3		1
Massachusetts.....	40	25	14	1	11
Michigan.....	20	79	17		14
Minnesota.....	6	32	4		5
Mississippi.....	7	7	2		
Missouri.....	2	10	5		2
Nebraska.....	5	7	3		1
New Hampshire.....	3				
New Jersey.....	27	9	5	1	10
New Mexico.....	2	17	6	1	4
New York.....	21	16	10	1	15
North Carolina.....	18	3	12	1	5
North Dakota.....	2	6	3		1
Ohio.....	27	20	24	1	18
Oklahoma.....	4	43	12		3
Oregon.....	1	29	5		2
Pennsylvania.....	77	42	11	1	10
Rhode Island.....	2	10	3	2	2
South Carolina.....	2	8	3	2	
South Dakota.....	6	5	3		1
Tennessee.....	19	2	7		10
Texas.....	27	127	6		30
Utah.....	1	10	15		2
Vermont.....		1	1		
Virginia.....	3	6	5		7
Washington.....	6	54	15		5
West Virginia.....	6	18	37		1
Wisconsin.....	15	13	1		10
Wyoming.....		9	4		
Territory of Hawaii.....	3	2	4		2
TOTAL.....	478	1021	459	20	308

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 15. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS TRANSPORTING PUPILS OTHER THAN PLAYERS TO OUT-OF-TOWN INTERSCHOLASTIC GAMES,\* BY STATE

State	Transport pupils to out-of-town games		Assume responsibility for pupil spectators		Other
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Alabama	40	3	4	35	1
Arizona	4	2		4	
Arkansas	10	2	2	7	1
California	28	33	7	24	2
Colorado	32	5	10	21	3
Connecticut	9	5	2	7	
Delaware	5	1		5	
District of Columbia		3			
Florida	25	13	3	21	1
Georgia	7	5		7	1
Idaho	10	8	7	3	
Illinois	104	10	36	56	5
Indiana	44	3	8	31	
Iowa	55	11	11	37	
Kansas	24	10	5	18	
Kentucky	11	4	2	7	
Louisiana	15	2	6	6	
Montana	9	4	2	7	
Maine	4	1		4	
Maryland	5	10	2		
Massachusetts	44	16	12	29	
Michigan	75	15	18	54	
Minnesota	22	19	9	11	
Mississippi	11	1		11	
Missouri	12	4	2	9	
Nebraska	6	5	2	7	
New Hampshire	2	1		3	
New Jersey	31	8	7	22	
New Mexico	15	5	3	11	
New York	29	13	10	21	
North Carolina	15	7	2	11	
North Dakota	6	2	3	2	
Ohio	37	18	5	34	
Oklahoma	13	4	8	29	
Oregon	18	9	12	6	
Pennsylvania	70	45	17	44	
Rhode Island	5	4		4	
South Carolina	8	1	1	6	
South Dakota	4	5	1	3	
Tennessee	7	5	2	7	
Texas	111	13	32	63	
Utah	4	6	4	4	
Vermont	2			2	
Virginia	8	1		6	
Washington	23	28	5	22	1
West Virginia	23	17	4	19	
Wisconsin	10	12	2	8	
Wyoming	5	3	1	3	
Territory of Hawaii	3	1	3		
TOTAL	1060	403	272	751	15

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 16. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS GIVING AWARDS TO PLAYERS ON INTERSCHOLASTIC TEAMS,\* BY TYPE AND BY STATE

State	No	School letters	Certificates	Medals	Emblems	Trophies	Other
Alabama.....	24	24	2				
Arizona.....	2	5					
Arkansas.....		18		2			
California.....	9	92	11	2	2		
Colorado.....	11	22	5	1			1
Connecticut.....	5	15	1				
Delaware.....	1	5					
District of Columbia.....	2	5	2	1			1
Florida.....	18	39	1				1
Georgia.....	3	9		3			
Idaho.....	7	10					
Illinois.....	12	93	1	1		2	1
Indiana.....	9	35	5		1		
Iowa.....	27	33	9		3		
Kansas.....	3	41	4	1			
Kentucky.....	5	19					
Louisiana.....	3	22	2	2		3	1
Maine.....		5					
Maryland.....	5	7	2				
Massachusetts.....	17	51	2			2	2
Michigan.....	37	69	9				
Minnesota.....	17	18	3				
Mississippi.....	4	9					
Missouri.....	1	15	2				
Montana.....	3	7					
Nebraska.....	3	6	4				
New Hampshire.....		3					
New Jersey.....	7	34	4	1			
New Mexico.....	1	26	1				
New York.....	7	41	2	6	1		2
North Carolina.....	3	5					
North Dakota.....	8	27	2			1	
Ohio.....	9	61	5				1
Oklahoma.....	11	40					1
Oregon.....	6	25	5				1
Pennsylvania.....	7	122	1		1		2
Rhode Island.....	1	10					
South Carolina.....	3	8				1	
South Dakota.....	3	5	3	1			
Tennessee.....	3	22	1				1
Texas.....	22	131	2	1			14
Utah.....	20		3				
Vermont.....	2						
Virginia.....	4	12					
Washington.....	2	57	2				
West Virginia.....	2	45	2				
Wisconsin.....	11	18	1		1		
Wyoming.....	1	8					
Territory of Hawaii.....	4	1	2				
TOTAL.....	365	1561	101	22	9	9	29

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 17. NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING UNFORTUNATE EXPERIENCES WITH INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS,\* BY STATE

State	No	Yes	Undesirable rivalry between schools	Unsal. attitudes among players	Excessive cost to school	Awards have proved un- satisfactory	Boily injury or strain	Night games have proved undesirable	Inter. competition has interfered with pupils' studies	Speciators	Officials
Alabama.....	39		2	4	6		3	3	4		1
Arizona.....	7		1								
Arkansas.....	15		1		1		1	2	2		
California.....	96	3	10	6	6	2	2	1	4	4	
Colorado.....	31		5	3	2	3	6	3	1		1
Connecticut.....	21		1	1							
Delaware.....	5			1							
District of Columbia...	6									1	
Florida.....	47	1	6	3	4		1	1	1	1	1
Georgia.....	12		1	1	1	1	1		2		
Idaho.....	13		1	2	3		2	2			
Illinois.....	87		12	10	5	1	12	12	8	3	
Indiana.....	41	1	4	2	4	1	5	3	1	2	
Iowa.....	62	1	8	4	2	2	6	4	6		
Kansas.....	41		1	2	2	1	3	4	3		
Kentucky.....	17	1									
Louisiana.....	24		2	1	5		2		2		
Maine.....	4				1						
Maryland.....	17										
Massachusetts.....	67	2	7	3	1	2	4	3	1		
Michigan.....	100	2	8	8	6		11	4	4		
Minnesota.....	36		1	3	3	1	1		4		
Mississippi.....	10		2		1			1			
Missouri.....	17		1		1		1	1	1		
Montana.....	10		3	2	1		2	1	2		
Nebraska.....	13										
New Hampshire.....	3										
New Jersey.....	34	3	6	1	2		4	1	2		
New Mexico.....	23		2		2		5		1		
New York.....	44	2	7	5			5	1	4	1	
North Carolina.....	18		3	1	6		2	2	1		
North Dakota.....	7		1		2		1	1			
Ohio.....	49	1	9	1	8		7	10	2		
Oklahoma.....	39		1	2	4		6	4	3		
Oregon.....	26	1	1	4			1	1	1		
Pennsylvania.....	101		12	5	5	1	8	10	9		
Rhode Island.....	13			1							
South Carolina.....	9										
South Dakota.....	11										
Tennessee.....	22		2	1	1		1	1	1		
Texas.....	138	2	11	9	14	2	11	15	12		
Utah.....	19		3	3	1	1	2				
Vermont.....	2										
Virginia.....	16		2	1		1	1	1	1		
Washington.....	49	1	4	5	5		6	5	3		
West Virginia.....	32	2	4	4	4		7	5	5		
Wisconsin.....	26		1		2	1	2	5			
Wyoming.....	9										
Territory of Hawaii.....	4			1	1				1		
TOTAL.....	1532	23	146	100	112	20	129	107	92	12	3

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.



TABLE 18. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS PARTICIPATING IN INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC TOURNAMENTS\* AT STATE, CITY, AND/OR REGIONAL LEVELS, BY STATE

State	State	City	County	Conference <sup>1</sup>	Invitational
Alabama	3	14	28	2	..
Arizona	..	4	..	2	..
Arkansas	9	5	3	8	..
California	2	49	1	8	1
Colorado	..	3	4	4	3
Connecticut	..	6	..	2	..
Delaware	..	..	..	..	..
District of Columbia	..	2	..	1	..
Florida	5	24	14	..	..
Georgia	2	3	3	..	..
Idaho	2	3	1	4	..
Illinois	24	15	19	26	3
Indiana	..	14	9	8	5
Iowa	1	8	12	10	2
Kansas	2	10	1	15	2
Kentucky	..	3	1	4	..
Louisiana	..	13	6	2	..
Maine	..	..	..	..	..
Maryland	..	..	2	..	..
Massachusetts	9	23	..	9	..
Michigan	4	22	5	14	..
Minnesota	2	8	..	7	..
Mississippi	2	4	..	3	..
Missouri	..	7	1	1	2
Montana	..	2	..	1	..
Nebraska	..	..	..	4	1
New Hampshire	..	..	..	1	..
New Jersey	..	9	3	4	..
New Mexico	1	6	1	12	2
New York	1	25	..	8	..
North Carolina	4	4	1	2	..
North Dakota	1	3	2	1	2
Ohio	2	39	8	11	2
Oklahoma	3	6	7	22	1
Oregon	..	..	1	4	..
Pennsylvania	4	34	5	35	..
Rhode Island	6	6	..	1	..
South Carolina	..	3	1	..	..
South Dakota	..	..	..	2	..
Tennessee	1	16	2	4	..
Texas	5	53	3	83	3
Utah	..	3	..	2	..
Vermont	..	..	1	..	..
Virginia	..	5	..	1	..
Washington	1	9	3	27	..
West Virginia	..	14	17	3	..
Wisconsin	..	6	..	3	..
Wyoming	..	..	..	5	..
Territory of Hawaii	1	1	1	..	..
TOTAL	97	484	166	366	29

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

<sup>1</sup> Conference includes League, Athletic District, Regional Group, and Island Association (Hawaii).

TABLE 19. KINDS OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETIC TOURNAMENTS\* IN WHICH JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS PARTICIPATE, BY STATE

State	Basketball	Track	Tackle Football	Baseball	Softball	Volleyball	Swimming	Wrestling	Tennis	Golf	Other
Alabama	41	4	3	7	5	1					
Arizona	6	2	3	3	1		1				
Arkansas	19	10	12								
California	53	47	23	43	4	4	1				16
Colorado	12	3	3								
Connecticut	6	3	3	4							
Delaware											
District of Columbia	1	2									
Florida	37	24	15	7	14	14	8		2	2	5
Georgia	6	4	4	1						1	1
Idaho	8	2	3	2				1	1	2	
Illinois	71	61	15	24	17		1		1	1	
Indiana	36	13	9	3				2			
Iowa	28	6	7		1						
Kansas	24	15	6	1					1		
Kentucky	8	4	4								
Louisiana	20	15	17	11	4	3	2			2	
Maine											
Maryland					1	1					1
Massachusetts	37	10	10	22	1					1	
Michigan	44	23	22	16	2	2	10	1	1	2	4
Minnesota	14	11	9	7	5		1		1	1	1
Mississippi	7	1	4	1							
Missouri	12	5	4			1					
Montana	2	1									
Nebraska	5	3	4								
New Hampshire	1										
New Jersey	17	9	7	7	1	2	2		1		
New Mexico	18	9	7	3							
New York	25	18	4	5	11	2	1				
North Carolina	9	3	5	5	1	1	1				
North Dakota	5	1	1								
Ohio	48	25	24	9	3				1	1	1
Oklahoma	35	15	24	14		1	1	3	4	1	
Oregon	5	3	4	3							
Pennsylvania	61	22	30	13	5	3	5	4			4
Rhode Island	10	4	5	7							
South Carolina	4	2	2	2							
South Dakota	3	2									
Tennessee	22	12	10	8	4						
Texas	134	112	134	16	20	9	10		24	7	
Utah	4	3	1	1							
Vermont	1										
Virginia	5	2	2	3		1					
Washington	35	30	36	26					5	2	
West Virginia	26	9	11		3						
Wisconsin	11	9	9		2				3	2	
Wyoming	5	3	3								
Territory of Hawaii	2	1					1				
TOTAL	983	563	499	274	105	45	45	11	45	25	33

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

TABLE 20. NUMBER OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS REPORTING\* TEAMS FOR GIRLS AND INTERSCHOLASTIC PLAY DAYS, BY STATE

State	Have interscholastic teams for girls		Sports								Have interscholastic play days for girls	
	No	Yes	Softball	Basketball	Volleyball	Track	Hockey	Swimming	Tennis	Other	No	Yes
Alabama.....	40	10	4	4	3						40	9
Arizona.....	4	4	2	1	3	1					3	5
Arkansas.....	18										18	
California.....	107	6	4	2	3	1	1	1		2	38	76
Colorado.....	36	6	2		1	1				2	28	14
Connecticut.....	16	5	4		1		2				6	14
Delaware.....	1	4	4	3			2				5	1
Dist. of Columbia.....	8	1					1			1	9	
Florida.....	37	25	10	16	9	1		3	2	4	27	32
Georgia.....	7	9	1	7	1				1		12	3
Idaho.....	16	3	1			1			1		14	5
Illinois.....	119				1						102	17
Indiana.....	49	1		1	1						43	5
Iowa.....	63	13	4	12						1	67	8
Kansas.....	47	1							1		43	6
Kentucky.....	17	1									14	4
Louisiana.....	13	16	6	12	10	6		1	1	1	22	7
Maine.....	5										3	2
Maryland.....	12	25	3	3	2						7	10
Massachusetts.....	58	21	12	15	2		7		1	1	54	23
Michigan.....	103	20	6	11	5	1	1	1		1	87	35
Minnesota.....	40	3		2	1						31	11
Mississippi.....	10	3									7	6
Missouri.....	10	1			1						15	5
Montana.....	12	1									9	3
Nebraska.....	12	1	1		1						11	2
New Hampshire.....	2	1	1	2							3	
New Jersey.....	39	10	2	5			6	1		1	27	21
New Mexico.....	26	1			1						17	10
New York.....	55	6	1	3	1		1			1	31	30
North Carolina.....	16	13	3	12	2					2	21	6
North Dakota.....	9										9	
Ohio.....	72	11	2	2	3				3	1	60	16
Oklahoma.....	30	21	7	13	1	1			2		38	10
Oregon.....	26	5	3	2	4					1	11	20
Pennsylvania.....	101	28	4	14	7	5	8	4	2	2	100	26
Rhode Island.....	14										10	3
South Carolina.....	2	8		8	1						7	4
South Dakota.....	11										11	
Tennessee.....	14	11	5	7	1	4					18	8
Texas.....	104	57	18	26	26	2			15		144	34
Utah.....	17	6	5	1	2					2	18	5
Vermont.....	2										2	
Virginia.....	10	9	7	5	4		3		1		10	7
Washington.....	56	5	2	1					2	1	25	38
West Virginia.....	45	2	1						1		43	3
Wisconsin.....	34			1	1					1	28	5
Wyoming.....	8	1		1	1						6	2
Territory of Hawaii.....	6										5	1
TOTAL.....	1559	375	125	192	100	24	32	11	33	25	1359	552

\* This information was not supplied by all reporting schools.

### Junior High-School Principals Cite Reasons for Their Approval or Opposition to Interscholastic Athletics

Item 3 on the questionnaire form deals with attitudes of principals toward athletic competition. About three fourths of the 2,036 responses to this item indicate favorable reaction to interscholastic athletics. As the replies represent judgment, they resist precise tabulation. At the risk of oversimplifying responses, we submit the six commonest favorable reasons given by principals:

1. Interscholastic athletics develop good school spirit.
2. Under proper auspices they provide wholesome competition.
3. They teach the values of sportsmanship and teamwork.
4. They emphasize desirable social conduct and social adjustment.
5. They promote pupil interest in school life.
6. They provide an outlet for the abundant energy of early adolescents.

A host of additional viewpoints mentioned by junior high-school principals are:

Interscholastic athletics help to create a favorable attitude toward school on the part of pupils.

They are a constructive influence in character development.

They give an opportunity for pupils gifted in athletics to excel.

They tend to reduce school drop-outs and are an antidote to potential delinquency.

They increase a pupil's knowledge of other schools and their student bodies.

They stimulate scholastic achievement.

They teach constructively the need for self-discipline and team discipline.

They keep many boys "off the streets."

#### FAVORABLE COMMENTS BY PRINCIPALS

Some of the principals gave across-the-board comments. Practically all of these emphasized the essential need for a balanced program, one that protects both team member and school from undue pressure. One principal writes: "An interscholastic athletic program contributes much to the spirit and pride of a school. It develops sportsmanship and citizenship. It is an excellent vehicle for teaching cooperation and team work. Of course, competitive sports depend upon the philosophy of the school, principal, and coach."

Another principal comments: "Youth is going to play anyway—somewhere, somehow—and it is better that they play under school supervision and with proper equipment."

Here is another: "Our democratic way of life is built on competition. There is definite value to competitive athletics on an interschool basis when proper emphasis is placed on them."

"Competitive athletics can be of great service to our youth in their growth and development."

\* \* \* \* \*

The consensus of junior high-school principals opposed to interscholastic athletics indicates the following six major reasons for their opposition:

1. Interscholastic athletics over-excite and over-strain youth that are physically and emotionally immature.
2. They take up too much time and effort, and disrupt the educational program of the school.
3. They are too expensive.
4. They involve only a relatively few participants.
5. They are less effective than an intramural program.
6. They place too much pressure on winning and are therefore too highly competitive.

Many other critical comments by principals include:

Most junior high schools lack the facilities to make interscholastic athletics succeed.

Intense rivalry detracts from the school's basic purposes.

The football part of the interscholastic program is particularly objectionable because of physical immaturity of junior high-school youth.

Competitive athletics tends to de-emphasize a well-organized physical education program.

#### UNFAVORABLE COMMENTS BY PRINCIPALS

One principal remarks: "We have football games now scheduled at night and they serve as an excuse for pupils to be out at all hours and at all kinds of 'hangouts.' This is too hard to control and places too much stress on over-competitiveness. Children of this age are over-taxed emotionally and under too much strain for their nervous system."

Another principal writes: "Boys of this age are unready physically or emotionally for intense competition; and a program for a few cannot be justified in terms of the amount of time or money required."

Here is another comment: "Boys who are small or slow to develop are often bypassed in interscholastic sports for the sake of victory."

"Travel is a problem. Schedules are hard to make because it is difficult to find schools of similar pupil enrollment."

#### CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The expressed attitudes of principals indicate clearly the controversial nature of junior high-school interscholastic athletic programs. Sometimes one finds that the reasons given for favoring and the reasons given for opposing competitive athletics turn out to be different sides of the same coin. For example, one side says that interscholastic athletics are

too competitive for junior high-school youth; the other side claims that competition is a value accepted by American society and that schools must reflect the society in which they exist; that, therefore, competition is not bad in itself.

One side believes that too few pupils are served by competitive athletics; the other side says that athletics makes the whole school "go," involving all pupils as participants in one way or another.

One side of the coin argues that junior high-school youth are too immature for athletic competition; the other side points out that youth need to have outlets for their abundant energy and that they will play competitively anyway, either on the streets or elsewhere—so the school might as well provide the activities and supervise them.

So it goes.

One of the significant variables in the *pro* and *con* judgments of junior high-school principals appears to be the experience of the person expressing the judgment.

Where the issue of interscholastic athletics is resolved by the educational forces in a community, there may be no major opposition to the athletic policy of the schools, provided the community understands clearly the position taken by the school leaders. However, where "outside" pressure seeks to compel the principal or superintendent to develop winning teams without adequate concern for educational objectives or safeguards, it is easy to understand why controversy becomes compounded by emotional outbursts. In such a situation, the question of what is best for early adolescent youth takes second place to the question, "Who is to determine the athletic activity program of the school?" In a majority of communities, of course, conflict of this sort is seldom an ingredient of school-community relations.

The comments of the principals—and the data in the tables of this survey—reveal a degree of dichotomy between theory and actual practice. Although some published pronouncements have spotlighted the undesirability of interscholastic athletics for early adolescent youth, the fact is that the majority of junior high schools have a program of interscholastic athletics and that their principals regard it as desirable.

#### Stated Policies and Standards for Junior High Interscholastic Athletics

This section illustrates some of the policies and standards that have been published by state departments of education, state athletic commissions, state secondary-school principals' associations, county and city school systems, conference or league groups, and individual schools.

- ① New Jersey, State Department of Education, Newsletter on "Physical Education and Athletics in Six Years of Secondary Education," Vol. 3, No. 5, February 1958, 6 p., printed.

## INTERSCHOLASTIC PROGRAM

The interscholastic program has tremendous spectator interest which has often expressed itself in ways inimical to the welfare of the pupils. Therefore, a statement of policy governing interscholastic athletics, formally adopted by the Board of Education, is essential.

The attention of the school must be focused upon the physical and moral welfare of the pupil. The school should not attempt to compete in any sport unless there can be provided adequate personnel, supplies, equipment, and playing facilities in addition to those which are needed for the basic physical education program and the intramural and extramural activities.

Interscholastic competition should be limited to boys in grades ten, eleven, and twelve. Any interschool contact for boys in grades seven, eight, and nine and for all girls should be developed through the extramural program. Boys in grade nine should be encouraged to participate against boys in same level.

The number of sports offered will depend upon the size of schools, personnel for coaching, facilities, and finances. The following is a listing of sports engaged in by varsity athletic teams:

<i>Fall</i>	<i>Winter</i>	<i>Spring</i>
Cross-Country	Basketball	Baseball
Football	Gymnastics	Track and Field
Soccer	Fencing	Lacrosse
	Swimming	Golf
	Wrestling	Tennis
	Bowling	
	Riflery	

## COMPETITION

Many physical activities take place in the form of sports where competition provides a strong incentive. The competitive spirit may appear as individual meets individual or as team meets team. Its operation is easily observed through the powerful effect it exerts upon contestants.

In the abstract, competition is neither good nor bad. Whether it is beneficial or destructive will depend upon the way it is used and how children are taught to conduct themselves when under its influence. A good coach, in addition to his concern for the physical condition of his players and the development of their skills, will manifest his qualifications as a teacher through his own high ideals and through his ability to guide his players into rightful attitudes.

It is important, therefore, that the local board of education should study recommendations and formally adopt a statement of policy which makes paramount the welfare of the pupils participating in contests. The active implementation of this policy by the school administrators and coaches will do much to stave off any unwholesome pressures which might arise. Such a statement of policy will also serve to keep expen-



ditures for the interscholastic program in proper proportion to the other financial needs of the school. Community support of the interscholastic program can only be justified when these conditions are met.

In the intramural and the extramural programs, the external pressures upon the participants and the instructors which are characteristic of much interscholastic competition are not likely to be intense. While competition in intramurals and extramurals may be keen, games can be played for fun. The final score has transitory interest; it does not become a cause for wild celebration or deep dejection. A constructive balance between the objectives of sportsmanship and the pressure of competition can be maintained easily in the pupil's mind and actions.

In interscholastic sports there are always the dangers that the pressures of publicity and spectator interest may obscure or nullify the educational objectives for which the schools have sponsored teams. Pupils should not be subjected to these strains even when able leadership is present until they are mature enough to be able to cope with them. It takes a skillful coach with high ideals, supported by a clearly understood administrative policy, to be able to guide his pupils safely through these pressures.

For mature boys in later adolescence (grades ten, eleven, and twelve), the interscholastic program conducted under proper safeguards provides opportunities for instruction that are unique, but these boys should be carefully selected, not only for their skill and physical superiority, but also for their emotional stability.

In certain interscholastic sports which promote a high degree of spectator interest, there is always danger that these sports will dominate the physical education program to such an extent that the skills in these sports are emphasized in classes and in intramurals to the exclusion of other more appropriate activities. Even in the earlier grades the influence of the high-school interscholastic program may be so great that the physical education instruction becomes primarily a "feeder" for high-school interscholastics and thereby neglects activities more suitable to the growth and development of the younger children.

For these reasons, it has been recommended practice in New Jersey to supplement the required class instruction with voluntary intramural and extramural activities available to boys and girls in junior and senior high schools. By general agreement, interscholastic sports for girls in New Jersey have virtually disappeared, greater values being realized through extensive intramural programs supplemented in some cases by extramural activities. For older adolescent boys, the New Jersey State Interscholastic Athletic Association has developed a wise system of controls over the interscholastic program which provides for fairness in competition, restrains undue emphasis, and sets standards for the maturity of the boys participating. The support which has been given to these regulations in spirit as well as in letter by the physical educators and the administration of the state indicates their value as a guide in the interscholastic program.



- ② AAA Junior High School District, Beeville, Texas, May 20, 1957.  
2 p., mimeo.

Member Schools:

Beeville	<i>Stephen Fey</i> , Principal
Gillett (Kingsville)	<i>Paul Jones</i> , Principal
Memorial (Kingsville)	<i>Carl Bacon</i> , Principal
Sinton	<i>J. D. Carlyle</i> , Principal
Alice	<i>John Arkwright</i> , Principal
Robstown H. S.	<i>Bill Corder</i> , Principal

Officers:

Chairman	<i>Stephen Fey</i> , Beeville
Vice-Chairman	<i>Carl Bacon</i> , Memorial
Secretary-Treasurer	<i>Henry Mullins</i> , Beeville

FOOTBALL

*Age*—A boy must not have reached his sixteenth birth date on or before September 1, 1957.

*Eligibility Reports*—The eligibility reports are due on September 24, 1957. The \$10 entrance fee should accompany this report.

*Eligibility established*—All participants must meet Interscholastic League rules in academic subjects, and must be in the seventh, eighth, or ninth grade. The ninth-grade boys must participate either on the junior high-school squad or on the high-school squad. Should a ninth-grade boy participate with the high-school squad, he will not again be eligible to participate with the junior high-school squad. A participant's eligibility is limited to two (2) semesters in the ninth grade.

*Additions to squad*—Additions during the year must be sent to the District Chairman seven (7) days prior to any contest in which said addition might participate.

*Proof of age, other data for eligibility*—The eligibility list must be based on the earliest documentary evidence available and must be certified as correct by the principal of the school.

*Game Reports*—The host school will be responsible for sending a card to the District Chairman the day following a game.

*Game Equipment*—The regulation full uniform for football players will be worn by all participants.

*Officials*—Three (3) S. F. O. A. officials will officiate at each game.

*Length of game*—Four ten-minute quarters shall constitute each game.

*Game proceeds*—The host school will keep all gate receipts. Admission prices must not exceed 50 cents for adults and 25 cents for students.

*Fall Football Practice*—The beginning date for fall football practice shall not precede the date set for the beginning date of fall football practice for AAA high schools.

*Officers*—Stephen Fey and Henry Mullins were re-elected Chairman and Secretary-Treasurer, respectively, for the year 1957-58.

*Robstown*—Was unanimously elected to membership in the district beginning in September 1957.

*Fall Meeting*—A meeting of the district committee will be held early in September 1957 at the junior high school in Sinton.

*Football Schedule, 1957*—Remember to send a copy of your football schedule to the District Chairman as soon as possible. You will then be sent a copy of the entire district football schedule.

#### BASKETBALL

1. Robstown  
2. Alice

3. Memorial  
4. Gillett

5. Beeville  
6. Sinton

#### *Basketball Schedule, 1958*

Jan. 6-10	Jan. 13-17	Jan. 20-24	Jan. 27-31	Feb. 3-7
1-2	1-3	1-5	1-4	1-6
6-3	2-4	4-6	3-5	5-2
5-4	6-5	3-2	2-6	4-3

A single round-robin tournament will be played for the first round and a district tournament (single elimination) will be held in Sinton for the second round. The tournament is to be held February 15, 1958.

- ③ Recommendations of St. Louis County (Mo.) Junior High-School Principals' Group. (Submitted by Principal John R. Johnson, Ritenour Junior High School, Forest Overland, Missouri, October 23, 1957.)

1. Basketball and football games should be scheduled with schools in the area, whenever possible, to eliminate excessive travel.

2. The junior high-school interschool athletic program should be limited to students of the ninth grade.

3. A maximum of five (5) interschool football games and ten (10) interschool basketball games should be played on the ninth-grade level.

4. Particulars for basketball contests should be as follows:

- Six-minute quarters
- Two minutes between quarters
- Ten minutes between halves
- At least one (1) competent adult official
- Games be started by 4:00 P.M. or sooner, if possible.

5. Junior high-school basketball coaches meet Wednesday, October 30th, 7:30 P.M. at the Maplewood Junior High School, 2400 Sutton, for the purpose of drawing up their basketball schedule.

- ④ "National Trends and Good Practices in the Junior High-School Athletic Program," by Harold Schmickley of the Iowa High Schools Athletic Association, Des Moines, Nov. 8, 1957. 4 p., multi.

- I. Competition is inherent in child growth, and opportunity must be given to exercise such competitive appetite by means of expanded intramural activities which offer much to satisfy the hungers of competition.
- II. There are many groups interested in sports involving junior high-school students who are not aware of many problems and who do not hold the same opinions and objectives of the program as do administrators and recreation leaders.
- III. An athletic or recreation program during summer months may appear to meet the hopes for that type of objectives, but, if proper guidance and supervision are not present, the program may become uncontrollable and serious problems might arise.
- IV. Trends and practices vary with respect to the different sports.
- V. Junior high-school football, which by nature has the most symptoms of direct contact as we interpret contact in sports, presents the majority of trends and practices nation-wide. Basketball is next with baseball, softball, and track almost nil insofar as data is concerned.
- VI. Problems, trends, and practices vary because of the various types of junior high-school organizations, the most common types are as follows: grades 7 and 8; grades 7, 8, and 9; grades 8 and 9; grade 9. Different problems as well as their solutions will vary. In general, grade levels go hand in hand with age levels. The exceptional boy, whether he be large, small, smart, or lacks intelligence, presents a problem in which there is no recommended solution.
- VII. In some states there is still no supervision over junior high-school athletics, such as state athletic association administration. The I.H.S.A.A. included the administration of junior high-school athletics in its program commencing July 1, 1951. Member schools voted overwhelmingly in favor of this program in May 1951.
- VIII. Trends and Practices in Junior High-School Football
  - A. In many states there is a pronounced trend of a formalized football program, more so in the ninth grade or in the eighth and ninth grade. The common complaint is that a senior high school composed of grades 10, 11, and 12 is somewhat handicapped because the 10th-grade boys were not exposed to a type of formalized football while enrolled in the junior high-school grades.
  - B. In some states, the opposite trend is prevalent, where contact or touch football activity is least common with emphasis on kicking, running, and passing fundamentals. This type of restricted activity presents a problem in that

it is difficult to prevent junior high-school boys from extending themselves into a contact activity.

- C. Midget football is making inroads in eastern states, as well as into Iowa. This type of activity is outside the jurisdiction of any state athletic association, and already is inviting serious problems. During Christmas vacation, the Santa Claus Bowl in Miami involves a southern all-star team against a northern all-star team, the players being from junior high-school grade levels. The time involved, traveling distance, and other factors are far from being desirable and school administrators are aware of the fact that such activity contributes very little to the over-all educational program.
- D. Most pronounced trends deal with limitations. In Ohio, football games are played between 4:00 and 6:00 o'clock in the afternoon and on Saturdays. In the state of Washington, eighteen (18) practice days are required before the first game is played, and in Iowa, three weeks of practice is necessary. In Washington, the football season extends from September 1 to November 11; in Iowa, the first game is played after three weeks of practice and the period extends to the first Saturday in November. In Washington, only six games are played per season, and in Iowa, only one game is permitted per week in all sports, with the exception of sanctioned tournaments in which more than one game may be played per week, but only one game per day. In football, the 8-minute quarter is used as per the National Federation Football Rules. The purchase of good equipment is highly recommended, and the use of rubber soled shoes with molded cleats is quite common. Registered officials are recommended and desirable since their administration of the game keeps the game under control and prevents injuries. In Washington, a physical examination is required prior to each sport season. In Iowa, all boys must have physical examinations before they participate in their first practice session.

Basketball likewise offers some trends. Games are discouraged after supper hours and only one game per week. Some states do not permit any tournaments. National Federation Basketball Rules are used, in which schools adhere to the 6-minute quarter. In Washington, the season starts November 15 and ends March 15. In Iowa, the season starts November 1 and always ends on the day on which the final High School State Championship game is played, which would be March 8, 1958, for the current school year.

Baseball, Softball, Track, and other sports do not offer as many problems as the fall and winter sports and not much data is available. The question, "Is Little League baseball good?" presents a live topic. If the schools do not supervise the summer baseball program, other groups will.

#### IX. General Nation-wide Recommendations

- A. From the health aspect, there is invaluable merit in emphasizing the practice of *touch* football in grade 7 and in grades 7 and 8. Some states advocate *touch* football, but do not prohibit contact football.
- B. The American Medical Society has held that body joints are too tender and under-developed to warrant any degree of contact, especially in the contact sports.
- C. Most junior high-school contests should be played between 2 o'clock and 6 o'clock in the afternoon, and on Saturday.
- D. For contests played during school time, spectator groups, pep groups, bands, and so forth should be prohibited from following the team to another school.
- E. Visiting teams should not arrive at the host school more than one hour before game time. In Iowa, the I. H. S. A. A. has definite regulations relative to dismissal time and travel time for teams playing away from home. (See Page 38 in your 1957-58 Record Book.)
- F. In some states where the junior high-school maximum age is 17, there is a movement underway to lower it to 16, or from 16 to 15. Iowa's maximum junior high-school age is 16.
- G. Adequate physical examinations are strongly recommended prior to each sport season. In other words, athletes, therefore, are to be required to have physical examinations more than once during the year, and for each sport.
- H. Eligibility requirements may be higher than the minimum required by the respective athletic association.
- I. Transportation of teams and spectator groups should be strictly supervised. The players should be transported in one bus and all others in another bus, or other means of transportation.
- J. The junior high-school program also gives an opportunity to place emphasis on proper dress, grooming, poise, etc.
- K. Health practices and good housekeeping in the classroom, dressing room, as well as at home, can be strongly emphasized in a junior high-school program.

- L. The junior high-school athletic program should offer an outlet for excess energy and exercising, and remove the premium on winning.

X. Summary

- A. There is expanding activity nation-wide for schools to assume the responsibilities of the athletic program in the junior high-school grades, not only during the school year, but also throughout the summer months. De-emphasis should be placed on winning, and every boy should have the opportunity to participate in every game.
- B. Parents are becoming better informed of the serious problems which can result from undue emotional and physical strain. Parents, realizing that there is a wide variation with respect to the emotional and biological development of children, are becoming more receptive and willing to place limitations on interschool athletic activities and place more emphasis on the intramural aspect.
- C. Competition is inherent in child growth, and, with the expansion of new school reorganizations, the increased pupil enrollment offers greater opportunities for better intramural programs.
- D. The junior high-school athletic program is a stepping stone to the senior high-school program, and offers, at the most opportune time, the teaching of good work habits and proper attitudes, self-discipline, sound health practices, and the meaning of friendly rivalry, fair play, and good sportsmanship.

- ⑤ "Athletic Program for Boys of Junior High-School Age." Long Beach, Calif., Recreation Department. (Submitted by Dale Haskin, Assistant Superintendent of Physical Education.) 3 p., mimeo.

Designed to meet the needs of highly skilled boys for wholesome recreation through vigorous competitive athletic games and contests, a well-rounded athletic program for boys of junior high-school age is conducted by the Recreation Commission. This activity is an outgrowth of the instructional program in physical education and after-school intramural program of the public junior high schools.

Games and contests are held on Saturday mornings throughout the school year. Practice sessions in preparation for the Saturday morning games are held after school during the week preceding the scheduled athletic event.

The year's program of athletic competition consists of six-man flag football in the fall, followed by basketball and gymnastics during the winter months. Track and field and baseball competition provides activity during the spring months of the school year. In each sports

season a team may be entered from each junior high-school area in the eighth-grade and in the ninth-grade classifications.

Competition in flag football, basketball, and baseball is conducted on a round-robin schedule with six teams participating in one league and seven teams in the other. A playoff between winners of the two leagues is held at the conclusion of the round-robin schedule. In track and field and gymnastics, each team is permitted three weeks of practice and conditioning, followed by two practice meets and one sectional meet. Those qualifying in the sectional meets participate in the all-city event.

Responsibility for the policies and the administration of this Saturday athletic program for junior high-school age boys rests with the Recreation Commission. Program development and supervision is delegated by the Coordinating Director of Municipal and School Recreation to the Supervisor of Municipal Sports and an Assistant Supervisor of Physical Education who serve in a liaison capacity between the after-school program and the Saturday morning sports program for junior high-school boys sponsored by the Recreation Commission. As co-commissioners of the program, these men share the leadership in planning the program, interpreting policies, rules, and regulations and supervising the practice and game periods. All employed personnel working on Saturdays or evenings after the school playground programs have terminated are paid by the Municipal Recreation Department.

To assist in an advisory capacity in the formulation of broad major policies and rules governing the operation of the athletic program for junior high-school age boys is the responsibility of the Junior High-School Men's Physical Education Committee. This group consists of the principal and the chairman of the boy's physical education department of each of the public junior high schools, the Assistant Superintendent (high schools), and the co-commissioners indicated above. The chairman of the Junior High-School Principals' Association presides at meetings of this committee.

Serving in an advisory capacity to the co-commissioners in the planning for the year's program is an Athletic Committee, consisting of the Physical Education Department Chairman of each junior high school, the Assistant Superintendent (high schools), and the co-commissioners. The latter two serve as co-chairmen of this committee. Typical functions of the Athletic Committee are to advise and assist in the planning of the athletic schedule for the year, determining the formation of leagues and the method of classification of contestants. To assist in the planning of specific details relating to the actual athletic games, rules for each sport, game time and place, evaluation, *etc.*, a Seasonal Sports Committee in each activity meets prior to each sports season and at other times as needed. These sports committees are composed of the physical education teachers who conduct practice sessions for the teams in the current seasonal sports.



Recreational leadership in the preparation of the teams after school during the week is fulfilled by the junior high-schools' physical education teachers who are employed as leaders in a part of the coordinated recreation program with funds provided by the school district. These men are employed by the school district after school during the week as play directors at the regular school-play directors' hourly rate of pay. On Saturdays, these men are employed by the Municipal Recreation Department at the regular municipal-play directors' rate. All supplies used in the Saturday program are provided by the Municipal Recreation Department. The use of the school facilities for the games is provided without cost in accordance with the provisions of the Civic Center law. School district buses are used to transport members of the teams to and from the Saturday scheduled games and contests.

Information about meetings, schedules, rules, league standings, or the minutes of planning meetings for the program are prepared in the office of the Director of Recreation and distributed through the regular school messenger service. Authorization of the Assistant Superintendent (high schools) for the distribution of these publications through the school messenger service is required prior to their distribution. Copies of each publication relating to the program are sent to the school principals and the chairman of the boys' physical education department of each junior high school. In addition, copies of each publication are sent to members of the school district administrative staff and the administrative and supervisory staff of the Municipal Recreation Department to provide current information about the program to those concerned.

A simple system of awards for achievement in the program has been in effect for a number of years. Sports Unlimited, a local civic organization, at the end of each sports season presents members of the winning teams with individual medals. Team trophies are also presented to winning squads in recognition of good sportsmanship and achievement in athletic competition. Individual silk-ribbon awards for second and third-place winners in each sport are provided by the Municipal Recreation Department.

The program of athletics for boys of junior high-school age is unique as compared to many interscholastic athletic programs. Because games are held on Saturday mornings rather than during the school week, there is no interference with the school schedule and there is no distraction from studies. Rooting sections, flag waving majorettes, and drill teams, typical of some senior high-school athletic programs, are missing from these athletic events as are organized rooting sections and large spectator gatherings. Publicity is kept to a minimum. Emphasis is placed upon participation with as many players as possible getting into action. Boys in this program are receiving the many values inherent in participation in a lively competitive athletic program organized and administered democratically under sane policies and controls.



- ⑥ "Intramural Program at Corpus Christi, Texas," by Peter H. Curran, Director of Intramurals, Wynn Seal Junior High School.

The usually nosy spectators were silent—all 280 of them who had jammed into the gym balcony. The score in the intramural volleyball game was 19-20 with 15 seconds to play, and the losing team had the serve. The 16 players on the court were tense as the ball was served. It hit the net and fell to the floor. The ball game was over. The score was unusual, but the crowded stands and eager participants were not unusual at our intramurals. The count of spectators has ranged from 105 to 410 depending on the intramural sport and the stage of the tournament. By now, someone has probably glanced back to the statement of 15 seconds left to play in the volleyball game. He realizes that volleyball is a game which is won by the team that scores 15 points first provided it has at least a two point lead.

Our intramural program in Wynn Seale Junior High School, Corpus Christi, Texas, is a little unusual, but it fits our school needs. An explanation of it might give some new ideas or help solve a few problems. A few years ago our school had an intramural program that was run by one of the coaches. When he was transferred, the program was dropped for a semester. Then I was drafted by the principal. He was instrumental in having the school board set up the position of director of intramurals with a salary schedule comparable to that of junior high-school coaches but with no varsity coaching involved. This gave me more time to concentrate on solving intramural problems.

The first two years the intramurals were carried on after school. The sports offered were football, basketball, volleyball, track, and softball. The results were discouraging to me as we were plagued with too many forfeited games and poor spectator attendance. During the second year, the answer to one of my problems occurred during a ping-pong tournament. Owing to the large number of entries, part of the games were scheduled for the mornings. None of these games were forfeited, and we had to fight the spectators off.

The following year we switched to having the basketball games in the mornings. That was the answer! The students came to school early; but when school was out, they wanted to go home. We noticed that during this time the usual early morning playground scuffles and problems were almost non-existent.

Now our intramurals are run exclusively in the mornings. This has necessitated a few changes in the standard rules which will be explained as each sport is taken up separately.

#### *Flag Football*

*Time:* 7:55 A.M. to 8:20 A.M. with 3 games being played at the same time

*Field Size:* 20 by 60 yards

*Team Size:* 7 men on a team

*Major Rules:* Each player wears a 2-foot flag tucked in the back of his shorts. The ball is down when the flag is pulled off the ball carrier. No tying of tails, stiff arming, or down-field blocking is allowed. Defense of your tail with your hands is illegal, but you may spin around and around. Three completed forward passes in 4 downs makes a first down. Points after touchdowns are tried.

#### *Basketball*

*Time:* 7:55 A.M. to 8:20 A.M.—2 ten-minute halves

#### *Volleyball*

*Time:* 8:00 A.M. to 8:20 A.M.—20-minute time limit

*Team Size:* co-educational with 8 on a team

#### *Softball*

*Time:* 7:45 A.M. to 8:20 A.M.

*Rules:* Regulation rules are used. Score is counted to end of nearest full inning of time limit (usually 5 innings).

#### *Track*

*Time:* 7:45 A.M. field events—8:00 A.M. track events.

Wynn Seale's being a three-grade level junior high school, we have three divisions in all sports. The teams are home-room teams. Officiating on the ninth-grade level is done by myself and on the seventh- and eighth-grade levels by ninth-grade pupils except for championship games which I call.

There are 1,150 students in our school and 35 home rooms. In volleyball alone this year, we had 31 home-room teams entered for a total of 248 players and an average of 192 spectators per game for the 37 mornings of the tournament. Last year, during the ninth-grade high-jump event where the competition was very keen, over 600 students crowded the field and the jumping lanes to see the finish.

We use several types of tournaments depending upon the number of teams entered and the sport. The most popular is the consolation type. No dates are set in the schedules posted in the main hall as bad weather often causes long delays, so announcements are made over the public address system the morning before the team plays.

The last important part of our intramural program is the cost—just my salary. As I am also a physical education teacher all physical education equipment is used. No trophies are awarded; the students are happy just to play. The winners get their pictures in the school paper and yearbook. The home-room teacher usually gives a coke party to the class. One of my regrets in the past has been that not too many teachers showed up to watch their teams play. This year even the light is shining brighter there as more have already been to the games than ever before in the past.

- ⑦ Statement by Franklin B. Hanson, Principal of Garrison Junior High School, Walla Walla, Washington, November 7, 1957 (letter to NASSP Committee).

The problem of interscholastic athletics in junior high schools is one that is most difficult to have an agreement between philosophy and actual practice. I believe a good intramural program is a necessity for the junior high-school age group, but I believe you need the opportunity for interscholastic competition in addition to your intramural program.

In areas where the schools have done away with interscholastic competition, or do not have it, outside groups have come in and sponsored teams and leagues. In some cases, the results have not been good for the boys or the schools. Little League and Pony League have become so competitive that the students that are interested in this form of activity look to the junior high school to have some type of interscholastic competition.

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# NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' COMMITTEE ON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

(Definition of Interscholastic Athletics: Team competition between separate schools within or outside your school system.)

## SURVEY OF INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

1. Do you have interscholastic athletics in your school?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If your reply is No, please answer only questions on this page.

2. What is your personal attitude toward interscholastic athletics in the junior high school?

( ) Favor them

( ) Oppose them

( ) Favor them only between schools within  
your school system

( ) Other (explain)

Principal \_\_\_\_\_ School \_\_\_\_\_  
City \_\_\_\_\_ State \_\_\_\_\_  
Enrollment (Sept. 1957) \_\_\_\_\_ Grades in School: 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 9 ☐ 10 ☐

PLEASE RETURN to Ellsworth Tompkins, Associate Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201—16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

If you have interscholastic athletics in your junior high school, please answer questions on the following pages.

3. Please cite major reasons for your attitude:

( ) I oppose interscholastic athletics because

( ) I favor them because

4. Have you changed your policy on interscholastic athletics since 1950?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If Yes, please check:

( ) Have discontinued program

( ) Have started one

( ) Other (explain)

5. Are you now planning a change in policy?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If Yes, please explain:

6. In what sports do you have athletic teams?

( ) Football

( ) 6-man Football

( ) Baseball

( ) Others (list)

( ) Softball

( ) Basketball

( ) Track

( )

( ) Swimming

( ) Wrestling

( ) Soccer

( )

7. With what schools do you compete in interscholastic athletics?

( ) Only with schools within your school system

( ) With schools outside your school system

( ) Other (explain)

8. When are interscholastic games played?

( ) Afternoon

( ) Night

( ) Both night and daytime as seems best

( ) Saturday morning

( ) Other

9. How are interscholastic athletics financed?

( ) Board of Education budget only

( ) Sale of tickets only

( ) Combination Board budget and sale of tickets

( ) Other (explain)

10. Is insurance against injury provided each player on a team?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If Yes, by whom?

( ) School pays entire premium

( ) Participant pays entire premium

( ) Other (explain)

11. Who furnishes uniforms and equipment to players?

( ) Provided by the school

( ) Provided by individual pupils

( ) Other (explain)

12. Do you have eligibility rules?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If Yes, who determines them?

( ) State Athletic Association

( ) Your junior high school

( ) Your school system

( ) Other (explain)

13. What is your policy on having 9th graders play on senior high-school teams?

☐ They do not participate  
☐ They participate in some sports. What sports?

☐ Other (explain)

14. How do you transport players to out-of-town games?

☐ Commercial transportation  
☐ School buses  
☐ Private cars  
☐ Other

15. Do you permit pupils other than players to attend out-of-town games?

☐ Yes ☐ No  
If Yes, do you assume responsibility for transportation of pupil spectators?  
☐ Yes ☐ No  
☐ Other (explain)

16. Do you give awards to players on interscholastic teams?

☐ Yes ☐ No  
If Yes, check whether by  
☐ School letters  
☐ Other (explain)

17. Have you had any unfortunate experiences with interscholastic athletics?

☐ Yes ☐ No  
If Yes, please check:  
☐ Undesirable rivalry between schools  
☐ Unsatisfactory attitudes among players  
☐ Excessive cost to school  
☐ Awards have proved unsatisfactory  
☐ Bodily injury or strain  
☐ Night games have proved undesirable  
☐ Interscholastic competition has interfered with pupils' studies  
☐ Other (explain)

18. Does a team compete for any championship?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If Yes, indicate:

☐ City-wide tournament: What sports?  
☐ State tournament: What sports?  
☐ Other: What sports?

19. Do you have interscholastic play days for girls?

☐ Yes ☐ No  
☐ Other (explain)

20. Do you have any interscholastic teams for girls?

☐ Yes ☐ No  
If Yes, in what sports?

21. How do interscholastic athletics affect the intramural program?

☐ We have an extensive intramural program  
☐ We have a limited intramural program  
☐ Players on interscholastic teams cannot play on intramural teams for same sport  
☐ Interscholastic athletics stimulates intramural program  
☐ Interscholastic athletics detracts from intramural program  
☐ Other (explain)

Additional Comments: *(Please use additional sheet if necessary)*

## A Program of Research and Services in Modern Foreign Languages

MARJORIE C. JOHNSON

THE facilities of the Office of Education for assistance in the field of foreign language teaching may be described under five main categories of activities: (1) consultative services, (2) surveys and statistical studies, (3) teacher exchanges, (4) cooperative research projects, and (5) administration of programs authorized by special legislation. A few concrete examples of services now available and of work in progress will illustrate each type of activity. But first it may be of interest to recount very briefly the historical framework within which these services have developed.

The Office of Education was established in 1867, after James A. Garfield, then a Congressman from Ohio, presented to Congress the request of the National Association of State and City School Superintendents for a national bureau to be directed by a Commissioner of Education appointed by the President. Its purpose, to quote from the original act, is "... collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." These are the basic obligations of the Office. In addition, either through special legislation or Executive Order, it has been given from time to time the responsibility of administering funds appropriated for specific educational purposes, such as grants for vocational education, library services, and school assistance in Federally affected areas.

The annual reports of the first Commissioners of Education reveal that for several decades the Office had a strong preoccupation with the study of foreign school systems. In 1910, because of the effectiveness of the field studies of specialists in foreign educational systems, it was decided to establish some specialist positions for various aspects of United States education. Now, although we have a Division of International Education, the greater portion of the Office program is concerned with our own schools and colleges. The Office of Education has always been small. For a brief time it functioned as an independent department of the Federal Government; then for many years it was firmly established in the Depart-

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ment of the Interior. In 1939 it was transferred to the newly created Federal Security Agency, which was replaced in 1953 by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Except for the periodic collection of statistical information, little attention was given to foreign languages *per se* until the National Survey of Secondary Education, for which the Office of Education received a special appropriation covering a 3-year period, 1929-32. One of the 28 publications resulting from this Survey was a monograph entitled *Instruction in Foreign Languages*, Office of Education Bulletin 1932, No. 17, by Helen M. Eddy of the State University of Iowa. Dr. Eddy was employed temporarily by the Office of Education with the title of Specialist in Foreign Languages of the National Survey of Secondary Education. She analyzed 207 courses of study in foreign languages from all sections of the country and visited 263 foreign language classes in 72 schools of 12 states. Through letters and personal interviews, she made further efforts to discover the best practices with respect to content and teaching procedures and to identify the newer trends which promised to be of significance for the future of foreign language courses in the secondary schools. She summarized her findings under three main headings: Modern Foreign Languages, Latin, and Foreign Language in the Junior High School. It is an interesting report because then, as now, the schools were in a transition period, trying at that time to apply the recommendations of the Classical Investigation and of the Modern Foreign Language Study.

The next Office of Education activity of significance in the field of foreign language teaching occurred ten years later when the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations was created to promote inter-American cooperation and solidarity. Among the thirty staff members of this new division were three language consultants, one each in Spanish, Portuguese, and English as a foreign language. This marked the beginning of Federal encouragement of foreign languages in the elementary schools and of summer seminars abroad for foreign language teachers. For four consecutive summers, 1944-47, the Office of Education, in cooperation with the Department of State, sponsored a Spanish Language Institute at the National University of Mexico and provided small stipends to the teachers who attended. During the four summer sessions a total of approximately 400 teachers of Spanish, representing every state, were selected for this recognition on the basis of recommendations made to the Commissioner of Education by the chief state school officers.

From 1942-46, also, the Office of Education sent the language consultants and some ten other staff members to work with curriculum committees and inter-American conference groups who were planning to introduce more Latin American content into the elementary and secondary-school curriculums. Exhibits of Latin American art and handicrafts and 22 separate packets of pamphlet materials on Latin America were furnished to schools on a loan basis, and about 10,000 copies of the Texas State Course of Study for Spanish Grades 3-8 were distributed free.



This flurry of activity in promoting the study of Spanish and Portuguese came to an abrupt end at the close of World War II. The new Division of Inter-American Educational Relations was merged with the old established Division of Comparative Education to form a Division of International Education. Dr. John Studebaker, then the Commissioner of Education, had authorization for an extensive Office reorganization which would have provided, instead of language consultants in the International Education division, six new foreign language positions, two each in the divisions of elementary, secondary, and higher education. The reorganization plan was abandoned, however, before these new positions were filled, and little further attention in the Office of Education was devoted to foreign language teaching until 1952, when Commissioner Earl McGrath began to call attention to the urgency of providing many more opportunities for language study, beginning in the early grades and continuing through the high school and college. The 1953 Office of Education Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Education did much to revive the FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary School) movement. The Office Liaison Committee on Foreign Language Teaching which was created for the Conference was continued until 1956 for follow-up activities, but it was ineffective because its members had other full-time staff responsibilities and lacked both budget and administrative machinery for initiating language projects.

The growing demands for information and services led in 1956 to the addition of a full-time staff member in the field of foreign language teaching, and I received that assignment. During the past two years there has been active support of this work, and I feel that even with such extremely limited resources we are doing some things at the national level which would not otherwise get done.

Now, to return to the main types of services and research which we have, or hope to have, in the field of foreign languages, I shall define each type briefly.

#### *Consultative Services*

These include work with other Governmental agencies, meetings with educators from other countries, cooperation with professional organizations, answering inquiries, preparation of reference lists for teachers and citizens' groups, information for press releases, inter-divisional program planning, and a variety of other work. Activities of this type could easily take, and too often *do* take, 100 per cent of the office time. It is a constant struggle to save any time for more tangible contributions, such as surveys and research projects, the second category of activities.

#### *Surveys and Statistical Studies*

We think of these, in terms of the long-range planning which is projected, in two ways: current and recurring. One kind of study emphasizes current and emerging issues and problems in education and is not repeated at regular intervals. Examples of such studies are reports of conferences and the survey just completed of language laboratories in the



schools and colleges. The other kind of survey includes the periodic collection of quantitative information, such as foreign language offerings and enrollments, and some qualitative data on instruction, such as that provided by the monograph which Dr. Eddy wrote in 1932. Such studies are recurring and comparative—that is they will be if we are able to follow through on the projected plans. We are now preparing questionnaires on foreign languages in grades 7-12, a status study for the school year 1958-59. The information is to be obtained in three ways: (1) a limited amount of statistical information by states, through state departments of education; (2) more detailed information on a sampling basis, through secondary-school principals; and (3) further detailed accounts pertaining to certain questionnaire items, through interviews and correspondence with individual language teachers in selected schools. The questions to be asked the state departments of education will probably include the following:

- Number of secondary schools in the state,
- Total enrollment in grades 9-12,
- Size of the median high school,
- Number of secondary schools with fewer than 100 pupils,
- Number of secondary schools that offer a foreign language,
- Number of secondary schools that offer a *modern* foreign language,
- Number of secondary schools that offer no more than two years of a foreign language,
- Number of schools above the median in enrollment that offer a foreign language,
- Number of schools below the median in enrollment that offer a foreign language,
- Total enrollment in foreign languages, grades 9-12,
- Total enrollment in modern foreign languages, grades 9-12,
- Number of teachers who are teaching a foreign language, either full- or part-time,
- Number of teachers who are certificated to teach a foreign language,
- Number of teachers now teaching a foreign language who are not certificated in that language,
- Date of the last state course of study for foreign languages,
- Enrollments for the fall term 1958 in specific languages.

In school year 1959-60 such a study will cover the status of foreign languages in the elementary grades, and the following year we plan a study of foreign language teachers—their number, preparation, teaching assignments, certification requirements, *etc.* Each of these studies of the status type is to be repeated at 5- to 10-year intervals in order to identify trends and new developments. Other recurring studies are analyses of research and of courses of study in foreign languages from city school systems and state departments of education.

#### *Teacher Exchange*

The third type of service, teacher exchanges, is that carried on and developed gradually since the war-time inter-American programs, in the

Division of International Education. The opportunities for United States teachers of modern foreign languages to teach or study abroad have shown an increase through the years. Under the International Educational Exchange Program, exchanges of teachers of French, German, Italian, and Spanish have grown from seven in 1948 to 77 in 1958. Recently, Fulbright and Fulbright-type agreements providing foreign currency have become effective with several Latin American countries. A new seminar for United States teachers, similar to those previously held in Mexico and now held in France and Germany, was established last summer in Colombia. Twenty teachers of Spanish left Miami on July 8 for that seminar. The principal countries in which grants have been available for United States teachers of foreign languages are Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, and Italy.

Language teachers are furnished current information about these opportunities in a bulletin called *Teacher Exchange Opportunities* which is released each September. Applications are then accepted until October 15 for the following school year. Inquiries and applications should be addressed to the Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, Office of Education.

#### *Cooperative Research*

The fourth activity, cooperative research projects, is just in its initial stages, and so far few applications for language teaching projects have been received. Potentially, however, such projects in the language field are important, for they can help find solutions to some of the problems of language learning and point the way to improved instructional programs.

Although research in the physical and medical sciences has been the surest means of providing sound answers to basic questions, education is still taking its first faltering steps toward building a body of research findings in experiments which probe deeply into the problems of teaching and learning. Public Law 531, 83rd Congress, gives recognition to the need for educational research of a type which cannot be performed entirely within the scope of the regular program of the Office of Education. This law authorizes the Commissioner of Education to enter into contracts and jointly financed cooperative arrangements with universities and colleges and state educational agencies for the conduct of research, surveys, and demonstrations in the field of education. Full information about the cooperative research program and application forms may be obtained from the Assistant Commissioner for Research, Office of Education.

#### *Administration of Programs Authorized by Special Legislation*

The fifth type of service is the administration of programs authorized by special legislation, such as that which is now under consideration by the Congress. The latest version of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 is H.R. 13247, which was approved in early July by a vote of 25 to 3 by the House Committee on Education and Labor. The provisions of this bill, posted last August in the dying hours of the 85th Congress,

would assist materially, both through institutions of higher education and through state departments of education, the instructional programs in modern foreign languages from the elementary grades through the graduate schools.

The processes leading to the initiation of this legislation may be of interest. In March 1957 the Commissioner of Education called an all-day conference of representatives of 20 government agencies which train or recruit personnel for overseas assignments. The purpose of the conference was to discuss the government's need for persons with competency in foreign languages. As a result of that discussion, the Office of Education staff felt that it was a matter of some urgency to acquaint school people with the shortage of Americans qualified in languages and to do something at the Federal level to accelerate the training of teachers and the preparation of students in languages not now in the curriculum. In May 1957 the recommendations of the March conference were presented to a selected group of leaders in American education. This second Office of Education conference, a three-day meeting, studied primarily foreign language teaching in the high school and considered what could be done to refashion the program to serve better the national need. Parenthetically, we might note that already there is evidence that the recommendation for a longer sequence of study is being heeded. As a follow-up of these two conferences, the Division of Higher Education and the Division of State and Local School Systems collaborated in the preparation of some legislation provisions for foreign language development, which the Commissioner of Education approved. The foreign language development program was included in the bill which was formally proposed by the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare and by the President when Congress reconvened in January of this year. The hearings before the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, which ended in March, form a volume of 1600 pages. Many features of the Administration bill and of the Hill-Elliott bill have now been incorporated in H.R. 13247.

The launching of Sputniks I and II served to dramatize our educational ills, including our inadequate foreign language training, in a fashion so spectacular that we have been confronted daily ever since with headlines and editorials and opinions of all sorts about the ways to strengthen our school programs. Slowly and painfully the American people are coming to identify our growing educational problems with our national security. The pre-Sputnik efforts of the Office of Education in the field of foreign language teaching are now of more popular interest, therefore, than might have been the case had there been no Sputniks. What is being said now about the need to begin foreign languages early, to maintain a long sequence of study, to place emphasis on direct communication skills, to offer for study a greater number of languages, and to cultivate an understanding of other peoples has been said many times in the past and would still be urgent if the cold war could end tomorrow. The essential difference now is that we are suddenly faced with a public readiness for

foreign learning which the language teaching profession is quite unprepared to satisfy.

We need more teachers, better qualified teachers, new materials and methods, and a whole set of answers to questions pertaining to the theory of language learning, the measurement of skills in listening comprehension and speaking, the development of intercultural understanding, and the applications of linguistic science to language teaching. The monumental work of redesigning the instructional programs in modern foreign languages has become necessary in the national interest, and it will require resourcefulness and bold, determined effort on the part of all. If we recall the historical development of foreign languages in our schools and colleges, we have to conclude that no single group, within or without the profession, can be said to have brought the languages to their present low status. Similarly, in recognizing the problems and difficulties as well as the needs which now exist, we must be keenly aware that no single group now, working alone, can ever build an adequate program. This is something demanding the sustained application of everyone's powers.

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#### THE NEW NEA PROJECT ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The teaching profession underscored its concern with the problems of juvenile delinquency when the National Education Association announced plans for an extensive project in this field. The project, according to Lyle W. Ashby, NEA secretary for instructional services, is designed to help teachers and administrators deal with juvenile delinquency. In the long run, he said, it is hoped that new and improved practices for handling them will be effected. (An earlier NEA study showed the problem spiraling, especially in larger urban centers.) Describing plans for the project, Dr. Ashby said that the NEA will tackle such questions as: What does this behavioral phenomena imply? What practices will improve the welfare of both the child and the teacher? How can we most effectively improve the welfare of both the child and the teacher? How can we most effectively utilize the contributions of psychology, sociology, medicine, and other related disciplines? "The delinquency project," said Dr. Ashby, "is another major service undertaken as a part of the NEA's expanded program. The NEA announced a new consultant and clearing house service on the academically talented just a month ago."

Dr. William C. Kvaraceus, professor of education at Boston University and one of the nation's leading specialists in the field of behavioral problems, will direct the project. Emphasizing the significance of the project, Dr. Kvaraceus said: "Between 1948 and 1955 the rate of juvenile delinquency has exceeded by more than four times the rate of population increase. If this trend continues, more than a million youngsters can be anticipated in the juvenile courts in the near future. Although we recognize that this is a problem for the whole community, our purpose will be to investigate the role of the school in preventing and controlling it."

# Teaching Assignments and Instructional Loads in Secondary Schools

STEPHEN ROMINE

## Part I: Teaching Combinations

**A**BOUT ten years ago the first comprehensive state-wide study of this type was completed by the writer.<sup>1</sup> At that time the signs pointed to a period of growing teacher shortage. This has now materialized, and the outlook for the next decade is not encouraging. The need for more efficient utilization of teaching personnel is greater than ever. Consequently, another look at teaching assignments and loads is in order.

This study, like the previous one, is restricted to secondary-school teachers in Colorado. Detailed reports were secured from more than 2,000 teachers in the 108 high schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The number of usable responses varied from one phase of the study to another, but in each instance a great majority of teachers was included, and schools of all types and sizes were represented by these teachers. Caution should be exercised in comparing the findings of this study with the earlier one, for the former included all accredited high schools in Colorado, whereas the present study included only the NCA schools.

## AN OVERVIEW OF TEACHING COMBINATIONS

The responses of 2,277 teachers were considered in this phase of the study. Instruction was given in twelve subject fields. The figures in Table I reveal the degree to which assignments were concentrated in each of these fields. Instructional loads were computed separately for each field to which a teacher was assigned. The field in which this load was the heaviest was recorded as the field of major assignment. Fields of minor assignment were those wherein teachers had lesser teaching loads. Each teacher had only one major field assignment, but many had one or more minor assignments in other fields. As an illustration, of the 253 teachers offering some instruction in the field of business education, approximately 93 per cent had the major part of their assignment in this field. The remaining 7 per cent had only a minor assignment in business education, the major assignment being in some other field.

<sup>1</sup>Stephen Romine, "Subject Combinations and Teaching Loads in Secondary Schools," *The School Review*, 57:581-58, December 1949.

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TABLE I.—THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS WITH MAJOR AND MINOR ASSIGNMENTS IN SUBJECT FIELDS

<i>Subject Field</i>	<i>Major Assignment</i>		<i>Minor Assignment</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Agriculture	39	98	1	2
Art	52	87	8	13
Business Education	235	93	18	7
English	486	85	86	15
Foreign Language	106	57	79	43
Homemaking	116	93	9	7
Industrial Arts	150	90	16	10
Mathematics	248	78	68	22
Music	124	95	6	5
Physical Education	156	66	79	34
Science	256	77	71	23
Social Studies	329	78	95	22

Another facet of teaching combinations is revealed in Figure 1. The graphs show the dispersion of assignments in one, two, or more fields in terms of each of the fields in which teachers were assigned. Approximately 60 per cent of all assignments were in a single field, 34 per cent in two fields, and 6 per cent in three or four fields. Only seven teachers were instructing in four fields, and none was teaching in more than four. Variation was apparent among the subject fields.

More detailed analysis also indicated that teachers in larger schools were more apt to instruct in a single field than was the case in smaller schools. Seldom did teachers in larger schools offer instruction in more than two fields.

#### PREVALENT TEACHING COMBINATIONS

The more frequently found teaching combinations are presented in Table II in terms of fields of major assignment. These have been restricted to the two-field combinations since the various three-field and four-field combinations appeared too infrequently to be significant. However, the number of different three-field combinations associated with each field of major assignment may be larger than one would guess. These were as follows:

Business Education	2	Physical Education	6
English	9	Science	6
Homemaking	2	Social Studies	11
Mathematics	6		

Another view of two-field combinations may be gained by adding together the number of individuals having like combinations, for example, English with foreign language and foreign language with English. The more prevalent combinations on this basis were as follows,

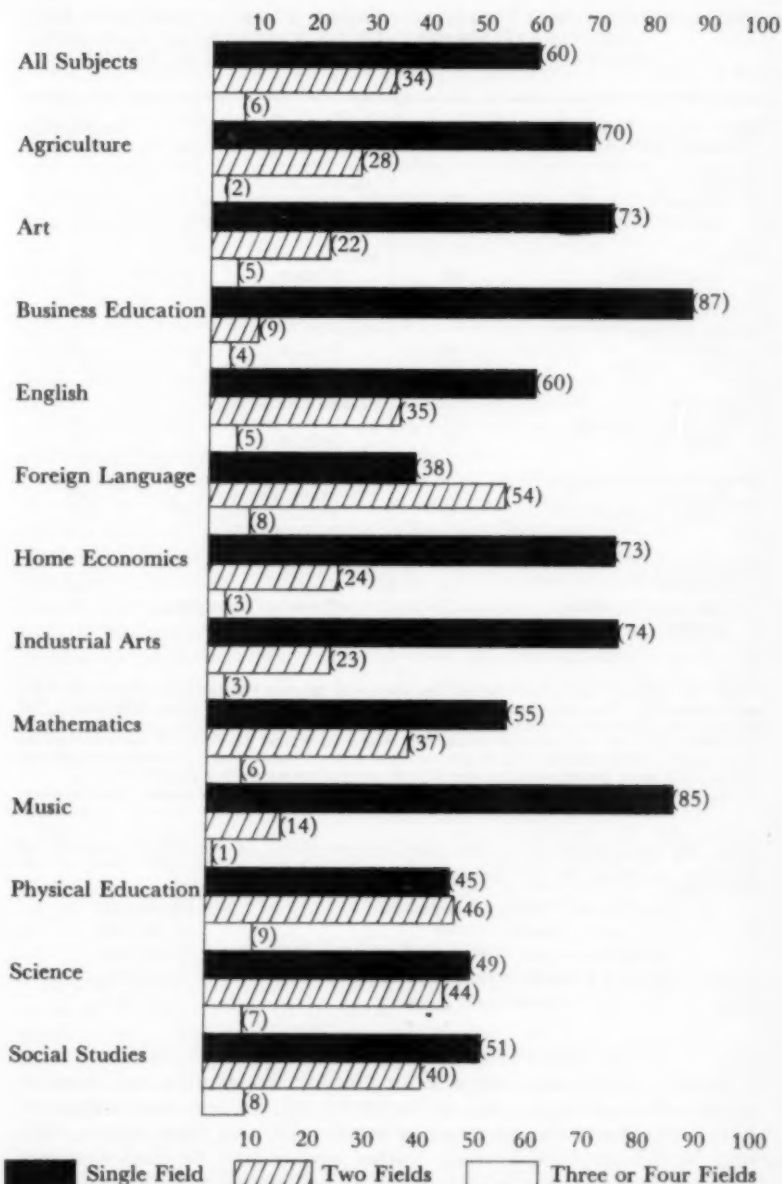


Figure 1. Approximate percentage of assignments in one, two, or more teaching fields.



TABLE II.—PREVALENT TWO-FIELD SUBJECT COMBINATIONS AND THE APPROXIMATE PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS IN EACH COMBINATION ACCORDING TO FIELD OF MAJOR ASSIGNMENT

<i>Major Field and Fields Combined with It</i>	<i>Percentage of Teachers</i>	<i>Major Field and Fields Combined with it</i>	<i>Percentage of Teachers</i>
<i>Agriculture (2)<sup>a</sup></i>		<i>Industrial Arts (6)</i>	
Science	70	Science	33
Industrial Arts	30	Physical Education	22
<i>Art (4)</i>		<i>Mathematics (8)</i>	
Social Studies	62	Science	52
		Social Studies	23
<i>Business Education (5)</i>		<i>Music (5)</i>	
English	38	English	45
Social Studies	31	Social Studies	27
<i>English (9)</i>		<i>Physical Education (9)</i>	
Foreign Language	43	Social Studies	38
Social Studies	30	Science	26
<i>Foreign Language (4)</i>		<i>Science (8)</i>	
English	60	Mathematics	50
Social Studies	34	Physical Education	22
		Social Studies	16
<i>Homemaking (7)</i>		<i>Social Studies (7)</i>	
English	27	English	45
Physical Education	27	Physical Education	30
Science	27		

a. The figures in parentheses indicate the number of different two-field combinations involving each major field. The table should be read as follows, using agriculture as an illustration. Two different two-field combinations were reported by teachers whose major assignment was in agriculture and who had a minor assignment in one other field. Of these, 70 per cent had the minor assignment in science and 30 per cent had it in industrial arts. Percentages usually do not total 100 since figures are given only for the more prevalent minor assignments.

with the percentage each combination involved of the total number of teachers assigned in two fields:

English and Foreign Language	15 per cent
English and Social Studies	14 per cent
Mathematics and Science	14 per cent
Physical Education and Social Studies	8 per cent
Physical Education and Science	6 per cent

#### SOME OBSERVATIONS ABOUT TEACHING COMBINATIONS

Smaller schools face more difficult problems in securing and assigning teachers than do larger schools. In the former, teachers more frequently have assignments involving two or more fields, and these combinations may be difficult to find when teacher replacement becomes necessary. Teacher turnover is also greater in these smaller schools; hence, ad-



ministrators face a real challenge in maintaining a staff well qualified for the assignments which are to be made.

Further analysis of staff utilization reveals that some of the less frequent combinations result from the assignment of experienced teachers to subjects in which they have limited or no preparation when it is not possible to secure fully qualified new personnel. This is a very questionable practice. But, faced with the decision of dropping courses from the curriculum, and believing that experienced teachers can do well without much formal college work, some administrators use this as one way of solving the problem. Once again, this problem is greater in smaller than in larger schools.

The more prevalent two-field combinations indicate the influence of related majors and minors promoted by teacher education institutions. School and college cooperation is helpful in meeting the needs which exist, and the persistence of certain combinations over the years is useful in counseling prospective teachers. Summer school and extension courses also facilitate the broadening of teacher preparation to permit assignment in more subject areas when this is desirable or needed.

The appearance of physical education with social studies and science as a prevalent two-field combination is new, but can be explained. First, more schools are offering physical education than was true five or ten years ago. Often the person teaching this must instruct in at least one other field, especially in smaller schools. Social studies courses are usually included in the general education required as part of teacher preparation, and the biological sciences constitute a field commonly related to physical education. It is, therefore, reasonably easy for physical education majors to take a few extra courses to meet the minimum requirements to teach social studies and science. Many other fields are also found in combination with physical education. There is reason to believe that this results in part from primary concern by administrators to secure coaches who are then assigned to fields as needed and in terms of their other qualifications.

Careful analysis of teacher qualifications is imperative if assignments are to meet minimum requirements. Study of teacher preparation reveals that in some schools improvements could be made simply by reassignment of existing personnel.

## Part II: Teaching Loads

In this phase of the study, the revised Douglass Formula as utilized, whereas in the earlier study made about ten years ago the original formula was employed. This revised formula yields a teaching load measure in terms of units per week based upon the following: subject coefficient, class periods of instruction per week, duplications in teaching preparation, number of pupils in classes per week, number of class periods per week spent in other assigned activity, and length of class periods.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>Harl R. Douglass. *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools*, Boston: Ginn and Co. 1954. pp. 96-101.

### TEACHING LOADS BY SUBJECT FIELDS

The figures in Table III indicate the upper and lower quartiles and the median teaching load in each of the twelve subject areas. Single field assignments, as well as combinations, are tabulated separately, and totals are given.

Variations are quite apparent. The semi-interquartile range was greater for combination assignments in agriculture, art, English, foreign language, homemaking, industrial arts, and social studies than for single field assignments in the same fields. With four exceptions (English, foreign language, homemaking, and social studies) the medians were higher in combination assignments. Using total figures, the greatest semi-interquartile range was in music and the smallest in business education. Similarly, the highest median was in agriculture, and the lowest was in music.

### TEACHING LOADS OF MEN AND WOMEN

The responses of 1,248 men and 1,007 women are summarized in Table IV in terms of fields of major assignments. More responses were received, but not all could be used in this aspect of the study since last names only were reported in some cases and no sex was indicated. In each of the nine fields in which both men and women taught, the semi-interquartile range for men was greater than that for women. The median load for men was higher in art, English, math, music, physical education, science, and social studies. Differences were not great, however. Among these same nine fields, men outnumbered women in art, mathematics, music, physical education, science, and social studies. They were outnumbered by women in business education, English, and foreign language.

Some of the individual teaching loads reported were more than four times as great as others. For the total of 2,255 cases the median was 28.96; the lower quartile, 26.05; and the higher quartile, 32.02.

### TEACHING LOAD AND SIZE OF SCHOOL STAFF

The feeling has been expressed now and then that teachers in larger schools carry heavier loads than those in smaller schools. The figures in Table V do not substantiate this unless minor differences are considered to be significant. Even then the increase in load is not consistent as size of school increases.

The semi-interquartile range of teaching load tends generally to decrease slightly as size of school increases, although not in any exact proportion. Undoubtedly, factors other than size of school staff influence assignments and load.

In larger schools, teachers often had fewer preparations with larger classes, while in smaller schools there were generally more preparations and smaller classes. Variation in teaching load within individual schools

TABLE III. TEACHING LOAD OF 2277 SECONDARY TEACHERS IN TERMS OF SINGLE FIELD ASSIGNMENTS AND ASSIGNMENTS INVOLVING TWO OR MORE FIELDS

Field of Major Assignment	Single Field				Combination of Fields				Total			
	No. of Cases	Q <sub>1</sub>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Mdn.	No. of Cases	Q <sub>1</sub>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Mdn.	No. of Cases	Q <sub>1</sub>	Q <sub>3</sub>	Mdn.
Agriculture	28	29.90	36.50	32.5	11	29.25	35.93	35.00	39	29.75	36.27	32.69
Art	44	25.04	29.90	26.54	8	26.00	33.50	29.50	52	25.15	30.50	26.85
Business Education	220	26.25	30.28	28.54	15	27.87	31.75	29.25	235	26.31	30.33	28.64
English	345	28.32	32.53	30.07	141	27.29	32.51	29.51	486	27.48	32.53	29.89
Foreign Language	71	26.56	29.69	27.86	35	25.32	29.69	27.82	106	26.32	29.69	27.85
Homemaking	91	26.89	32.39	29.31	25	24.68	33.05	28.25	116	26.30	32.94	29.00
Industrial Arts	122	25.43	30.46	27.92	28	26.00	33.5	29.5	150	25.51	31.21	28.24
Mathematics	178	25.88	30.67	28.32	70	29.38	33.06	30.05	248	26.18	31.57	28.74
Music	111	20.59	30.56	24.68	13	19.25	28.00	25.62	124	20.50	30.36	25.45
Physical Education	105	21.61	29.19	25.73	51	25.79	32.47	29.12	156	23.46	30.40	26.79
Science	147	27.88	32.65	29.96	89	29.99	33.52	30.19	236	27.93	32.89	30.05
Social Studies	218	27.58	33.29	30.15	111	26.22	34.11	29.88	329	27.30	33.49	30.09

TABLE IV.—COMPARISON OF TEACHING LOADS OF 1,248 MEN AND 1,007 WOMEN

	MEN				WOMEN			
	<i>No. of Cases</i>	<i>Q<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>Q<sup>3</sup></i>	<i>Mdn.</i>	<i>No. of Cases</i>	<i>Q<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>Q<sup>3</sup></i>	<i>Mdn.</i>
Agriculture	39	29.75	36.27	32.69				
Art	27	25.42	31.88	27.58	25	24.98	28.62	25.57
Business Education	71	26.25	30.78	28.16	164	25.60	30.10	28.48
English	157	25.35	33.25	30.33	325	27.34	32.15	29.68
Foreign Language	37	24.87	29.45	27.80	69	25.64	29.85	28.07
Homemaking					116	26.30	32.94	29.00
Industrial Arts	150	25.51	31.21	28.24				
Mathematics	164	26.57	31.93	28.95	83	25.47	30.75	27.84
Music	101	20.48	31.59	26.22	23	20.56	28.09	26.00
Physical Education	84	24.27	32.81	27.50	72	22.90	28.20	26.00
Science	184	27.85	33.16	30.15	44	27.68	32.25	29.75
Social Studies	234	27.57	34.46	30.35	86	27.20	32.17	29.72

TABLE V.—TEACHING LOAD AND SIZE OF SCHOOL STAFF

<i>Number of Teachers on Faculty</i>	<i>Number of Cases</i>	<i>Q<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>Q<sub>3</sub></i>	<i>Median</i>
5 - 10	216	25.25	32.97	29.03
11 - 15	427	25.86	32.24	28.78
16 - 20	232	25.26	31.28	28.06
21 - 25	279	26.16	32.37	29.37
26 - 30	139	26.31	33.24	29.16
31 - 35	96	27.05	32.45	29.46
36 - 40	113	27.71	31.86	29.06
41 - 45	126	27.31	32.24	29.54
46 - 50	205	26.85	31.68	29.26
More than 50	429	26.85	31.84	29.28

was often quite great. For example, the following selected cases reveal extensive ranges:

School A	10.4 to 48.6	(87 teachers)
School B	21.6 to 51.1	( 5 teachers)
School C	18.7 to 45.2	(49 teachers)
School D	20.9 to 29.6	(26 teachers)

Differences among median loads were also apparent as figures for four other schools suggest:

School E	29.83	(13 teachers)
School F	31.16	(42 teachers)
School G	25.80	(12 teachers)
School H	33.50	( 8 teachers)

Semi-interquartile ranges varied also, but did not reveal the extremes apparent when the full range of teaching load was considered.

## TEACHING LOAD AND TEACHER EXPERIENCE

Inexperienced teachers frequently are reported to have heavier teaching loads than older and more experienced instructors. Such reports are not supported by the data presented in Table VI. The semi-interquartile range of teaching loads tends to decrease slightly among teachers with more experience.

TABLE VI.—TEACHING LOAD AND TEACHER EXPERIENCE

<i>Years of Teaching Experience</i>	<i>Number of Teachers</i>	<i>Q<sub>1</sub></i>	<i>Q<sub>3</sub></i>	<i>Median</i>
1 <sup>a</sup>	188	25.43	32.14	28.86
2 - 3	307	25.86	31.93	29.06
4 - 5	271	25.81	32.55	29.06
6 - 10	571	26.51	32.93	29.50
11 - 15	227	25.96	31.18	28.57
16 - 20	181	26.46	31.91	29.15
21 or more	508	25.76	31.11	28.54

a. Teachers in their first year of teaching; similarly 2—3 means teachers in their second and third years of teaching.

## OBSERVATIONS ABOUT TEACHING LOAD

From the data it is apparent that differences exist among teaching loads in the various subject fields. Part of these differences may be attributed to subject coefficients used in the formula. Combination assignment loads were generally heavier than single field loads. But no significant correlation appears to exist between the percentage of such assignments in given fields and the median loads.

The differences in teaching load between men and women do not appear to be significant. Differences among individuals were much more marked. The size of school staff appeared to be of no real consequence, but variations among schools were rather marked.

The results of this study suggest that secondary-school administrators should give more careful attention to teaching loads and their adjustment. This is particularly important at a time when proper staff utilization means so much. Too often teaching load is thought of in terms of pupil-teacher ratio alone. This can be misleading. The use of the Douglass Formula provides a more comprehensive measure which is helpful in dealing with load adjustment as well as load appraisal.

## 1958 FILM RELEASES

Teachers will be interested in the new film, *Flannel Boards and How To Use Them*, produced by Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood. This 15-minute color film shows how to make a variety of simple flannel boards, how to use the materials that stick to them, and how to work with flannel boards in many classroom situations from kindergarten through college. Prints are available for rental at \$7.50 and for purchase at \$150.

# The Identification and Development of Talent

EWALD B. NYQUIST

THIS is the "era of the great talent search," as John Gardner of the Carnegie Foundation has characterized it. If it is an "era," it means that the hunt is going to last for some time, I should think for the next decade or fifteen years. If it is a "search," it means that there is a need and a frustrating gap between manpower requirements and the availability of trained and educated personnel to fill them. If it is "talent" we are looking for, then it means that the entire gamut of useful and productive human abilities is what we are concerned with and not just those persons who should fulfill themselves and society's needs through higher education and the most advanced fields of learning. Supplying these definitions should make it clear that the field of our concern, the identification and development of talent, is a vast one.

## THE ISSUES

One of the most difficult tasks we have in education is to give the American public a comprehensive and deep understanding of education at all levels, and of the real purpose of education which to me means individual fulfillment, the development of talents to maximum usefulness, and the common good. There is a direct and vital relationship between the talents and abilities of educated people on the one hand and the prosperity of our economy and the success of our nation on the other. This relationship is just now becoming understood with respect to higher education, for instance, and is reflected in the increased financial contributions from industry and commerce.

But it is a continuing task in interpretation, nevertheless, to make clear, as the President of the University of Illinois has said, "that our people must not take the narrow view that the welfare of our educational system at all levels is of concern to them only when their children are enrolled or when the supply of trained personnel for their business is affected." There will be a necessity remaining with us for some time to come to foster the recognition that the whole concept of a democratic society rests upon a people educated to the utmost of their abilities.

An enormous amount of talent in our democracy goes unused. It is mandatory that steps be taken to raise the level of motivation of a greater number of those not now completing an education which will stretch

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their abilities to the utmost, and that increased efforts be made to apprise students in the educational system of the full range of opportunities equal to their talents. These things must be done in order that shortages in many professional and vocational areas may be alleviated. Without doing so, it means that a more intense recruitment by one occupational area of the available personnel only serves to deprive some other profession of its current quota. The waste of human talent which has not been developed to its fullest is obviously of national concern. There are several tasks or issues which we must face which have vast significance for guidance counselors.

1. One of the tasks we have with us, in the broad interpretation of the development of talent, is the provision of adequate higher education facilities for the record numbers who will soon be clamoring for entrance. An overwhelming amount of this college ability talent has already been identified or has identified itself. If adequate facilities are not provided, it is hardly useful or necessary to point out the waste of human effort and ability which will occur. A first issue then is the provision of sufficient education facilities.

2. But there are others in our school system who have either no aspiration or financial wherewithal to attend post-secondary institutions. These must be identified, motivated, and assisted to make full use of their abilities. A second issue, then, is the provision of adequate means for testing, guidance, and counseling in our public elementary and secondary schools. And the task has even greater dimensions.

There are many others in our school system who have a potential for continuing further than they do in their elementary and secondary schooling but drop out. Sometimes these students are in programs for which they are less fitted than they are for others, if these had been available, or if they had been adequately assisted in choosing some more appropriate, available program. Such youth need identification, encouragement, and increased diversification in educational programs at the elementary and secondary levels.

A noted author points out that our youth today are no more realistic in their vocational aspirations than they were in the past. He goes on to say that four fifths of our youth aspire to high level jobs in which only one fifth of our labor force is employed and that this phenomenon is due to false job values we have in our society and to the "prestige hierarchy of occupations." It is a fact that higher level jobs have the largest proportion of satisfied workers, and there is an increasingly higher proportion of dissatisfied workers as we go down to the semiskilled and unskilled levels of work.

Occupational maladjustment is due to the failure of our educational system to prepare many of our youth adequately for occupational competition upon entering the labor force after high school. What results, as this author has pointed out, is "a wholesale negative vocational guidance program" whereby students drop out of school as failures in academic (or



at least inappropriate) types of education and emerge into the labor market with few educational qualifications that can be used to classify them properly for available jobs. Thus, occupational misclassification frequently occurs in business and industry.

Clearly there is an insufficiency of manpower in guidance and counseling in our secondary schools. The present pupil-counselor ratio, although much improved, is still almost double what it should be. Moreover, the number of counselors necessary even to maintain the present ratio will greatly increase as high-school enrollments leap. The ratio of perhaps 900 students to one counselor some years ago has now been reduced to 516-1 for the year 1956-57. It is significant to note that in 1955-56 the ratio was 576-1. It should be noted, too, that the number of persons with part-time responsibilities in guidance are on the decrease. A ten per cent gain, therefore, has been made in one year, and this in the face of mounting enrollments. Increased enrollment and the disposition recently of some school districts to economize sometimes by cutting out administrative overhead (meaning guidance personnel) make the task of enhancing our guidance function in the secondary schools one of disturbing difficulty.

3. Another issue is the adequacy of the educational programs in our secondary schools for those of our youth with extraordinary mental capacity and special talent. In other years, much of our educational effort was central to the purpose of preparing the best of our youth for higher education. Later on a reaction set in and the result was comprehensive education and a concern for all youth whatever their abilities. It occurs to me that while this concept is overriding in importance, our grasp of it and our dedication to it were in advance of the readiness of our facilities and educational ingenuity to give full practical effect to it.

A perfectly valid and rational concern for all and for equality of educational opportunity for everyone has sometimes been translated into sentimental egalitarianism by which I mean the attitude that, while everyone is equal, the poor, the handicapped, and the dullard are more equal than anyone else, and, in any case, the able can shift for themselves. There is difficulty in persuading ourselves and others that additional support and special programs are needed just as much for the gifted as for those who are exceptional in other ways.

One must not confuse equal opportunity with equal status. The American value system, as suggested by Professor Lloyd Warner of the University of Chicago, is based on a dual set of basic and opposite principles. The first is the principle of equality—that equality of opportunity which is necessary to keep our dignity and self-respect, to give each citizen the equal right to participate in making decisions about our own affairs and destinies, and to establish the secular intrinsics of the Judaic-Christian concept of brotherhood. The second principle, and it is not popular to discuss it openly, concerns unequal status and inferior and superior rank. This one is necessary to provide people with motives to



excel, to better oneself and one's family, and to furnish our nation, our communities, and our social, commercial, and political institutions with responsible leadership. Both are necessary and both must share our educational concern. At any rate, there is today a return to a concern for the gifted and for providing the ablest of our youth with the educational means commensurate with their talents. The question is, have we done enough?

4. Another issue of some importance is the misuse of highly trained professional people on skills which might well be handled by others, semiprofessionally trained. This problem is connected with the need for more educational facilities and programs through which to educate increased numbers of our secondary youth at the level of higher education. The problem exists in every field: medicine, dentistry, social work, librarianship, engineering, and so on. Community colleges have a real contribution to make in solving this problem.

5. Another issue is the under-utilization of the physically handicapped. We have come a long way since the 1920's in rehabilitating properly the handicapped, but there is much to be done in methods of training, in vocational counseling, and in reducing resistance to the employment of the handicapped.

6. Another issue is the failure to utilize the ever-increasing number and proportion of older persons in our society. We have a real responsibility in the fields of adult education and the utilization of the aged. Age alone is not always a good index of competence.

7. One final neglected source of manpower and talent comprises minority groups. It has been contended that the only unused large source of manpower for our expanding economy is the Negro. All talented youth from the white majority is not being used, to be sure, but the largest manpower pool of potential is represented by the Negro. In New York State, the Negro population is approximately twelve per cent. The college-going rate is roughly  $\frac{1}{38}$ th of one per cent. The rate is low, not because of financial difficulties, but because Negro youth have not taken the college pattern of high-school courses, have not been motivated, have not been recognized by schools as potential teachers, chemists, engineers, technicians, *etc.* In short, Negroes in the North are still victims of discrimination and cultural deprivation, though to be sure rapid gains are being made. Understanding in the school systems and among the public, intensified effort in the right directions, and varied curriculums are required.

We will have to begin to understand that to identify and develop the talent of certain racial and cultural minorities is a different challenge from the others with which we are concerned. It is not in the same dimension as it is for racial and cultural majorities. I mean by this:

a. The identification of talent in the culturally deprived and their motivation must be undertaken at a far earlier age than for other

youngsters. Discrimination against and cultural deprivation of minority groups in large urban areas have a pervasive effect and they comprise a powerful depressant in terms of achievement and motivation.

b. The present effect of attendance in schools which are all or almost all Negro, for instance, is such as to widen the achievement gap between Negro and white children. Since most Negroes are in the lower socioeconomic class, the additional cultural deprivations associated with this class complicate and add to an already difficult task. Even the fact that most teachers come from social classes higher than the ones associated with minority groups complicates the problem. Teachers must understand better the goals and behavior of these children or our efforts in conserving and developing human talent will be wasted along with the instructional efforts of the teachers.

c. Since most tests which are used are standardized on white populations, they are so culturally biased as not to identify truly the talent which many minority groups possess. Universal application of these tests reinforces the stereotypes of Negroes, for instance, which many hold about their ability and their moral and ethical levels. The evil is a stereotyped, unimaginative counseling and educational advisement program.

The foregoing represents some issues in educational manpower management which can be defined as the conservation and best utilization of the human resources in our economy, insofar as our educational system can be of influence. But I should like to make one thing eminently clear. As someone has said, "In a free, democratic society, we cannot achieve an optimal utilization of our human resources without recognizing the importance and dignity of the individual and his right to choose freely the occupation for which he feels he is fitted." All we can do, all that our function requires is that we provide for the individual such educational and guidance services as will (a) preserve and stimulate individual initiative, (b) produce a range of desirable choices, and (c) provoke the exercise of freedom of choice. In short, we must continue to avoid coercion and all that is inherent in the phrase, "the tyranny of the aptitude tester."

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

In the area of guidance and counseling we must work for these four broad goals in order to make the greatest possible use of our human resources:

1. Greatly increased administrative and teacher understanding of guidance purposes and programs
2. More recognition of the idea that guidance is an all-school function, most effective in terms of wide faculty contribution and participation in the program; there should be more attention given to guidance concepts in pre-service and in-service training programs for administrators and teachers.

3. Marked increases in the employment of additional well-qualified guidance directors and counselors—people who are well prepared to give leadership and resource assistance in guidance program improvement and effective counseling assistance to pupils and to parents; there are several implications and goals implied in such a statement:

- a. Continuous improvement in the selection and training of guidance personnel
- b. The employment of a full-time guidance director in school systems having a K-12 enrollment of 5,000 pupils, and part-time directors, with partial counseling loads, in smaller systems
- c. The employment of one full-time counselor for each 300 (optimum) to 400 (maximum) pupils in grades 7-12
- d. The provision of adequate and equitable salary schedules for guidance personnel

4. We must have better communication of guidance needs, procedures, and information to administrators, guidance personnel, and the public generally. Increased attention is necessary to achieve publication and distribution of guidance program materials and more extensive information on educational opportunities and requirements, occupational opportunities and trends, and scholarship and military service data.

I want to dwell for a moment in another way on the serious and important nature of your business, guidance and counseling. I started out in this article to you by emphasizing that this is the era of the great talent search. Talent is no good to those who possess it and to society unless it is first discovered, secondly encouraged, and thirdly refined through some educational process.

All of us live at a time when the world is rapidly changing. Indeed, several phenomena of our time have been characterized as explosions. There is obviously an explosion in population such that by 1970 we will have double the number graduating from our high schools and double the number entering our colleges and universities. There is obviously the explosion of new knowledge. The dramatic implications of Sputniks I and II are the accelerated pace with which the unknown has become the known; the exciting rapidity with which knowledge accumulates and becomes obsolete; and the ingenious success with which practical application of new knowledge is made in our affairs. Tomorrow will be too late, as Mr. de Kiewiet, President of the University of Rochester, has said, to discover the indispensability of education to the fulfillment of our individual and national aspirations. More than ever before it must be recognized that our colleges and universities, the capstone of our educational system, are the essential source for providing the knowledge and manpower educated at the highest levels of competence, requisite to maintaining our social, cultural, and economic advances and for carrying out our political aims.

Nothing is as important at this juncture in our society as the trained and educated mind. I firmly believe that the launching of satellites by a foreign power has enabled the American people to make this discovery, the indispensable nature of education. As all of you know, the State University bond issue amendment was recently passed by an overwhelming affirmative vote. The citizens of our state, I am convinced, have made this discovery, and we must follow up this confidence in education by providing the facilities and by identifying, motivating, and mobilizing the great natural intellectual resources of our youth.

You who are working in guidance and counseling have, in my view, second only to the importance of providing quality instruction, the next single most important job, that of discovering and encouraging the talent which passes through our school system. I can pledge to you my personal encouragement and the strong support of the Commissioner and the Regents in achieving your general objectives on behalf of the youth of this state.

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#### THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' 1958 YEARBOOK

The Department of Elementary-School Principals' 1958 Yearbook, *The Elementary School Principalship—A Research Study*, is now available. For this study questionnaires were sent to a broad sampling of elementary school principals. More than 2400 were returned and used as a basis for the *Yearbook*. In addition to reporting current information about the principalship, the *Yearbook* also identifies significant developments since the previous surveys of this nature, contained in the Department's 1928 and 1948 yearbooks.

Chapter titles give a further idea of the content of the new *Yearbook*: The Children We Teach, The Principal and Supervision, The Principal as Instructional Supervisor, The Principal and Administration, Some Organizational Characteristics of Elementary Schools, School Resources Available to the Principal, School and Community Interaction, In the Days Ahead, The Principal's Average Workweek, The Principal's Experience, The Financial Status of Principals, Education for Elementary-School Administration, Professional Associations of Elementary-School Principals, and Challenges Facing the Principalship.

The material reported in this publication should be extremely valuable to professional organizations, school systems, universities, and individuals who are concerned with the elementary-school principalship. The *Yearbook* provides statistical data on a national scale which will be useful in analyzing conditions at the state and local levels. It also points out many of the major challenges facing the profession—challenges which might appropriately be taken up by groups and individuals seeking the continued growth of the elementary-school principalship. All members of the Department for 1958-59 will receive copies of the *Yearbook* as part of their regular membership service. Others may obtain copies at \$3.50 each from the Department of Elementary-School Principals, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

## Basic Measures in Providing Quality Education

VIRGIL E. TOMPKINS

**M**ORE and more of late, school administrators have been faced with the dilemma of improving the quality of education in their particular schools. This is particularly true on the secondary-school level. To cope with this situation, many steps have been taken. Most of these have been superimposed on existing structures. For example, there are pressures to introduce special classes in science and mathematics; there is agitation for advanced and summer courses for the gifted; more emphasis is being placed on improving the reading ability of students; school days are being lengthened to provide more time for instruction; there are movements afoot to increase the number of credits required for high-school graduation, and more and better teachers are being sought through the introduction of higher salary schedules and the revising of certification requirements. These are but a few—all of them are praiseworthy and without question will accomplish a great deal. The question arises, however, as to whether there aren't more basic steps that might be taken which would give greater strength to our over-all program and, at the same time, provide us with a quality education that would be more enduring. There is the possibility that in some instances we may be overlooking the obvious. Therefore it might be well for administrators to re-examine their present structures to see if they can't re-design them and make them more productive. In this connection it is recommended that they consider the following areas.

### TEACHER LOADS

We need to ask ourselves if we would go out and buy a high-powered car which would go one-hundred and twenty miles an hour and then put a governor on it limiting its speed to only sixty miles an hour. Economically, such a move would be imprudent to say the least. I am sure we would all agree that it would be much wiser to buy a more modest car in the beginning. Why don't we follow this line of thinking when we are employing teachers and providing them with conditions under which to work? Are we not being imprudent when we don't? We give lip service to this practice, but do little about it. We look far and wide for the best teachers that can be found, pay them as much money as we possibly can within the framework of our existing salary schedules, and then turn around and saddle them with staggering class and student

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loads. If we expect these people to produce the quality education that is demanded today, then we must provide them with reasonable assignments.

The question then becomes, what is a reasonable teaching assignment? This depends on the area in which the person is teaching. In such subjects as English and social studies, where a great deal of writing takes place and time is needed to correct papers and prepare class lessons, a teacher should have at least two unscheduled periods during the day and his student load should be kept to a hundred or less. In the other subject areas, one unscheduled period might suffice. For example, in an eight-period day, a typical schedule for a teacher of English would be: four teaching periods, a study hall, and a club in addition to his unscheduled periods. In the other subject areas an additional teaching period would be assigned.

Resistance to such teacher loads may come from many sources. For instance, there are those school administrators who feel that unscheduled time for teachers is wasted time. This may be true in some instances, but, if proper supervision is supplied, this time will be profitably used. Moreover, it will lead to better staff morale by appreciably reducing the number of frustrations and harassments faced by teachers.

#### SUPERVISORY STAFF

In order to lend guidance, direction, and co-ordination to a program, supervision is needed. Certainly, in a school of any size, a principal does not have the time nor the competence to supervise in all of the subject areas. He must have the assistance of people who are well versed in the various subject fields. In cities and many large school systems, personnel are supplied for this purpose—not in the numbers desired, probably, but steps have been taken in the right direction at any rate. Smaller school systems often don't have any supervisors, as such, but they try to offset this shortcoming by appointing department heads. The defect found in this practice is that these department heads are not given the time necessary to do an effective piece of work. Again we see an economically imprudent practice prevailing. These people are not only ineffective in lending assistance to department personnel but the quality of their own teaching is also reduced. The amount of time allotted to these people for supervisory duties should naturally vary with the number of people for whom they are responsible. As a rough formula, it is recommended that for every four teachers supervised, a teaching period be subtracted from their regular teaching assignments. These people will not only improve the school program and the quality of teaching, but, if necessary, they can also almost save the school district a sum equal to their salaries by working with inexperienced teachers. In a sense, they become a helping teacher in orienting new teachers to the school and teaching and in providing them with close supervision until they are well established and have confidence and direction in their work. By providing this service,



districts may reduce the number of experienced teachers they employ. By so doing, they maybe also reduce the amount of money expended for teachers' salaries. This saving could then be applied to supervisors' salaries.

#### HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

Another effective measure for upgrading the quality of education is that of homogeneous grouping. It is realized that this is a controversial subject and no attempt will be made here to discuss its *pro's* and *con's*. Suffice it to say that the writer has had experience in working in schools where such a practice has been in force and in others where it hasn't and, without exception, he prefers the former.

Due to the constants in the junior high-school level, grouping there becomes a little more complicated. On the senior high-school level where students' programs become more elective, a certain amount of automatic grouping occurs. Nevertheless, additional grouping has been found to work very successfully in the constants and in a certain few other subjects.

Grouping, however, means little or nothing unless standards are established and maintained. In view of this, students should be required to perform up to or somewhere near their abilities or meet with failure. Unless this is done, quality education goes out the window and the attitudes and work habits that we are trying to instill in students become meaningless. At the same time, we are failing to meet an obligation by not providing students with a true sense of values.

#### GUIDANCE SERVICES

Underlying any sound educational program is a good, well-staffed guidance department. With homogeneous grouping and added complications in college admissions, additional burdens are being placed on this department. Much of its effectiveness will depend upon adequate staffing. To be certain that students are making the most of their abilities and opportunities, counselors must devote more time to them personally as well as to their teachers and parents. Expanded testing programs must be instituted and the results of these tests must be more thoroughly analyzed and put to greater use. Reports to parents, such as report cards and scholarship reports, must be followed up with student and parent conferences. More complete records on students must be kept and counselors will need time to keep abreast of changes and happenings in the different subject areas so as to be more conversant with students and teachers. These things cannot be done thoroughly without adequate personnel. It becomes incumbent upon boards of education to supply this personnel. Every attempt should be made to supply a counselor for every two-hundred fifty to three-hundred students. Such other pupil personnel services as a psychologist, a psychiatrist, and health consultants should also be made available.

### SCHOOL ATMOSPHERE

Each of the above-noted measures is in itself an effective means of improving instruction and supplying quality education. However, to realize their full effectiveness in terms of scope and depth to the total school program, all of them should be made available, if possible, for one is contingent upon the other. Their total impact creates an academic atmosphere which tends to permeate the whole school and, in turn, develops in students and teachers the desire for higher achievement and greater pride in work. This, without question, is one of the most important concomitants of such programs.

### INSTITUTION OF PRACTICES

It is realized that the measures recommended here are not new and startling. What is startling, however, is the fact that so few schools are employing them today to the degree that has been recommended. It is realized that they are hard to come by in many school systems because, in some instances, it will mean increased budgets. This will not be true in all cases, however. It may mean that money now being spent on less effective measures can be used for extending and refining practices which have been recommended. At the same time, we must realize that if quality in any commodity is desired, it must be paid for. Taxpayers realize this, too. And there are those among us who are still naive enough to believe that people are willing to support schools if they get the proper return on their tax dollars.

Finally, quality in education, like in anything else, comes from quality leadership. This leadership must be supplied by a chief school administrator who has vision and courage; one who has his feet on the ground and deals in reality rather than theory; and one who can deal with the pressures of increased enrollment and building expansion without losing sight of the heart of his school—the program. It follows that he must have the support of an enlightened and dedicated board of education as well as the support of his community. But with such leadership and support, the measures recommended here can be realized and with them, quality education.

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### MENTAL HEALTH IN TEACHER EDUCATION

San Francisco State College has just launched a five-year study-and-development project on mental health in teacher education, financed by a grant of about \$50,000 per year from the National Institute of Mental Health. The basic purpose is to identify and develop for prospective teachers educational experience which will enable them to promote the mental health of their pupils.

Coordinated by Dr. Fred Wilhelms, Professor of Education, the project staff will be drawn from the college faculty. During the first year it will include Paul Allen, Alice Breslow, John Connelly, Arch Lang, Ardelle Llewellyn, Claire Pedersen, John Robinson, and George Sheviakov. Initial emphasis will be on the professional education sequence; later, efforts will be made to utilize various parts of the liberal education program.

This is a project designed to help teachers create the healthiest possible environment and program for their pupils as a whole. It does not have as its central theme the special treatment needed by "problem" or pathological cases.



## Why We Have a Shortage of Scientists Today

GUY WAID

THE educational problem of the greatest concern to the American public is the shortage of scientists and engineers. The situation has been blamed on the President, the Pentagon, Congress, the Republicans, the Democrats, and the educational system. Suggestions for solving the problem are as numerous as are the causes mentioned. Probably there is some truth in all of the suggested causes of the problem and some value in all of the proposed answers; however, the operation of the law of supply and demand is the most logical explanation. If the enrollment trends of Carlsbad high-school students are representative of enrollment trends in America and if we are properly interpreting these enrollments, the explanation is rather simple.

In 1944-45, fifty-seven (57%) per cent of all juniors and seniors of Carlsbad were enrolled in our elective mathematics and science courses: second-year algebra, solid geometry, trigonometry, chemistry, and physics. In 1949 this percentage had declined to twenty-eight (28%) per cent, a hundred per cent drop. By 1957-58, the number had increased to forty-three (43%) per cent.

What was the cause of the rapid decline and increase in twelve short years? Most readers will recall the tremendous demand for scientists and engineers during World War II. Defense industries competed with manufacturers of consumer goods for their talents. Men in the Armed Forces who had such training received special assignments, and rapid promotion. The need for technically trained men as well known by all; as a result, high-school enrollment in advanced mathematics and sciences was high in 1944-45.

Returning veterans took advantage of the G. I. bill and swelled the enrollment in our colleges of engineering. By 1949, the market for engineers was glutted. College and high-school counselors, as well as the newspapers and magazines, were telling the young people of this surplus; hence the decline in enrollment in high-school mathematics and science courses by 1949.

The Korean conflict reversed the picture again. In addition, stories began to seep out of Russia concerning their scientific progress, and they boasted about their educational factory for turning out technicians. Sputnik shocked American complacency.

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Today, forty-five per cent (45%) of our juniors and seniors are enrolled in an advanced mathematics or science course. Many of these students plan to continue in some scientific or technical field. Only a few days ago the dean at New Mexico A & M told a group of visitors that 900 of their 2300 students are enrolled in the school of engineering. A few weeks ago some newspapers reported that the National Society of Professional Engineers denied that there was a real shortage of engineers in the United States, and called for an "improved utilization of engineering talent."

The increased enrollment in high school and college leads me to believe that we may soon have a surplus in the field even though there may be an inadequate supply at the moment. We will always have a severe shortage of trained talent at critical times and a surplus at other times as long as the law of supply and demand operates without any interference or direction.

We have several alternatives, but I believe the best bet is to establish a National Manpower Commission whose duty would be to make a continuous study of the supply and demand for not only scientists and engineers, but also for physicians, teachers, diplomats, lawyers, and other professional fields. High school and college counselors, as well as the public, should be kept informed of the immediate situation and the long range needs of the nation. Some information of this type is available now, but it is fragmentary and hidden in dozens of government documents.

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#### SOCIAL SECURITY KIT

Social Security offices throughout the nation will have kits of teaching aids which will be sent to any teacher, supervisor, or school upon request. This kit includes information on the latest amendments to the Social Security Act along with a new comprehensive book entitled *Social Security in the United States*. This material is especially useful in social studies, business education, home economics, and other classes. The kit consists of the following: a folder containing the essentials of the Social Security system; three wall charts (38" x 52") explaining how Social Security in general and old-age and survivors insurance in particular operate; problem sheets for use by students under the supervision of the teacher in figuring examples of family benefits; and a variety of pamphlets about old-age and survivors insurance for the teacher's use with some available in sufficient quantity for the pupils' use.

This kit may be requested directly from local social security district offices. Requests for additional supplies of any pamphlets for this kit for classroom use should be made to your local social security district office as soon as possible to assure you an adequate supply for this school term. Social security district offices are located in most of the larger communities in this country. If you do not know the location of your nearest social security office, you may obtain the address from your local post office.

# A Survey of the High School Course in Physical Science

KENNETH H. JOHNSON  
and WILFRID W. NEWSCHWANDER

THE traditional physical science program taught in most secondary schools today has been subject to criticism. Chemistry and physics are usually the only offerings in this program. The most common criticisms have been that the subject matter is so narrow that large areas of the physical sciences are omitted; that the chemistry and physics courses are elected by the superior students and as a result the instruction is often not well-suited to the average or below average student. The growing recognition of the inadequacy of the program has been expressed through the development of numerous new courses to enrich the science curriculum. One of the more recent additions to the curriculum has been the high-school course in physical science—a course which was intended to be in keeping with the current trend of emphasis on general education. Although the course at present has no standard body of subject matter, it has basically been patterned after the high-school course in general biology. Therefore, all the physical sciences—physics, chemistry, geology, astronomy, and meteorology—may be integrated into the course of study.

Many articles have been published on the high-school course in physical science, but none of them give an overview of its current status and how it is taught today. To obtain this information a master's thesis was completed in 1956 by Kenneth H. Johnson under the supervision of Dr. W. W. Newschwander at Central Washington College of Education.

## METHODS AND PROCEDURES

An adoption list was obtained from the publisher of a leading high-school physical science textbook. This list was from its publication date in 1951 through 1953. The publisher indicated that lists for 1954 and 1955 were not available. From this list a mailing list of 214 high schools and 7 school districts from thirty-four states and the District of Columbia was compiled, and questionnaires were sent to the heads of the science departments.

This survey did not include schools teaching the course without the aid of a standard textbook; schools using textbooks which were secured from sources other than the one covered by this study; or schools which may have begun teaching the course in the school years 1954-55 or 1955-56.

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## THE SURVEY

Table I has been presented to show the distribution by states, and the number of schools returning questionnaires. It must be kept in mind that this table shows the number of schools which adopted a particular text during a three-year period and does not indicate the number of schools teaching the course in physical science.

TABLE I.—DISTRIBUTION OF THE SURVEY BY STATES

STATES	SCHOOLS		DISTRICTS	
	Sent	Returned	Sent	Returned
Arizona	1	1		
California	7	3	1	
Connecticut	16	9		
Delaware	1		1	
Washington, D. C.	2	2		
Georgia	1			
Illinois	21	10		
Indiana	12	7	1	1
Iowa	1	1		
Kansas	1			
Kentucky	1			
Louisiana	1	1		
Maine	2	2		
Maryland	3		1	1
Massachusetts	22	11		
Michigan	10	5		
Minnesota	2			
Missouri	5	4		
Nebraska	3			
New Hampshire	2	1		
New Jersey	13	8		
New York	9	5		
North Carolina	3	2	1	1
Ohio	14	4		
Pennsylvania	31	9		
Rhode Island	3	3		
South Carolina	2	2		
South Dakota	1			
Tennessee	1			
Utah	2		1	1
Vermont	2	1		
Virginia	2	1	1	1
Washington	1			
Wisconsin	16	6		
TOTAL	214	98	7	5

As shown in Table II, 98 schools and 5 districts responded to the survey. Of this total, 73 schools and 3 districts were presently teaching the high-school course in physical science, 17 schools and one district had never taught the course (apparently publishers' adoption lists are not always accurate), and 8 schools and one district had offered the course in the past but were not presently teaching it.

TABLE II.—CLASSIFICATION, NUMBER, AND PERCENTAGE OF THOSE RESPONDING TO THE SURVEY

	SCHOOLS		DISTRICTS		TOTAL	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Those Who Presently Teach the Course	73	74.5	3	60.0	76	73.8
Those Who Have Never Taught the Course	17	17.3	1	20.0	18	17.5
Those Who Have Discontinued the Course	8	8.2	1	20.0	9	8.7
TOTAL RESPONDING	98	100.0	5	100.0	103	100.0

As the schools and districts which have never taught the course in physical science contributed no significant material to the survey, they are not considered in the remainder of the study; nor was the one school district which responded by letter indicating that the course had been discontinued in the late thirties. The three school districts presently teaching the course returned a total of six questionnaires, making a total of seventy-nine schools presently teaching the course. The remainder of the study was organized from data received from the above seventy-nine schools now teaching the course and eight schools which have discontinued the course.

#### THE SIZES AND TYPES OF THE SCHOOLS IN THE SURVEY

The schools participating in the survey varied greatly in type. Five schools had all 12 grades; forty had grades 9 through 12; and one school had only grades 11 and 12. There was also considerable variation in the size of the school represented; two schools had enrollments of over 4300, and in contrast, one school had an enrollment of only 85 students. The greatest number of schools had enrollments between 200 and 2,000 students. Table III shows a more detailed breakdown of the size of the schools and the grades taught according to the schools which presently teach the course in physical science and those which have discontinued the course.

TABLE III.—THE SIZES AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN THE SURVEY

<i>Schools Presently Teaching the Course</i>							
<i>Enrollment:</i>	<i>1- 199</i>	<i>200- 499</i>	<i>500- 999</i>	<i>1000- 1999</i>	<i>2000 up</i>	<i>Did not indicate</i>	<i>Total</i>
Grades 11-12				1			1
Grades 10-12	1	4	5	11	2	1	24
Grades 9-12	2	11	13	8	2	0	36
Grades 8-12	0	0	1	0	1	1	3
Grades 7-12	1	3	0	4	2	0	10
Grades 1-12	0	1	0	0	3	1	5
TOTAL	4	19	19	24	10	3	79
<i>Schools Which Have Discontinued the Course</i>							
<i>Enrollment:</i>	<i>1- 199</i>	<i>200- 499</i>	<i>500- 999</i>	<i>1000- 1999</i>	<i>2000 up</i>	<i>Did not indicate</i>	<i>Total</i>
Grades 10-12	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
Grades 9-12	1	0	2	0	0	1	4
Grades 8-12	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Grades 4-12	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
TOTAL	2	1	2	1	0	2	8
COMPLETE TOTAL	6	20	21	25	10	5	87

## THE CHARACTERISTICS AND CONTENT OF THE COURSE

The findings of the survey generally supported what had been found in the previous literature in regard to (1) the grade level for which the course was designed, (2) the duration of the course, (3) the suspected increase in the integrated physical science courses since World War II, and (4) the lack of a standard course of study.

Sixty-two of the 87 schools surveyed indicated that the course was designed for eleventh- and/or twelfth-grade students. It was taught as a full-year course in all but four of the schools responding, although a few of these schools indicated that it could be taken for only one semester if so desired.

In answer to the question which asked what year the course was first taught, only 10 schools indicated it had first been taught during or prior to World War II. In contrast, 20 schools first taught the course in the years between the close of World War II and 1950, and 39 schools began teaching the course in just the four-year period from 1950-51 through 1953-54. Despite the fact that the mailing list for the survey did not include schools which may have first offered the course since 1953, the above figures seem to indicate an increasing growth of the number of schools offering the course in physical science in the postwar years.

There was extreme diversity in the content of the courses surveyed. The schools were asked for the approximate percentage of time used to explore the 5 physical science subject areas and the answers ranged from zero to 30 per cent on astronomy, zero to 40 per cent on chemistry, zero to

80 per cent on physics, zero to 25 per cent on meteorology, and zero to 50 per cent on geology and physical geography. In addition to the five schools which mentioned physical sciences, one school indicated that approximately 20 per cent of the time was used to study consumer education; one school mentioned that about 25 per cent of the time was being used on current science; and one school listed aviation for approximately 10 per cent of the study time. In one school a survey card asking for the particular interest of the students was filled out by each student the first week of the course, and the amount of time used in each subject area depended upon the results of these cards.

The percentages of time spent on each of the 5 physical science subject areas have been graphically presented in Figure 1. In order to find the average course content, the mean per cent of time spent to explore each of the subject areas was calculated to the nearest per cent. The following course of study was determined as the over-all average: astronomy, 10 per cent; chemistry, 23 per cent; physics, 35 per cent; meteorology, 16 per cent; and geology and physical geography, 16 per cent.

#### THE FUNCTION AND PLACE OF THE COURSE

From the literature it would appear that the three basic functions of the course in physical science are (1) a fusion of chemistry and physics and a substitute for these courses, (2) a step in the sequence of science courses to provide a background for further high-school study in one or more of the physical sciences, and (3) a terminal course for non-science majors or for those students not going on to college. Table IV summarizes the current functions of the course in 84 schools.

TABLE IV.—THE RESPONSES AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS RESPONDING TO EACH QUESTION CONCERNING THE FUNCTION OF THE COURSE IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE

	<i>Did not indicate</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes and No</i>
(a) To aid slow learners	0	47	34	3
(b) Terminal course	1	68	13	2
(c) Substitute for chemistry or physics	1	23	60	0
(d) Step in the sequence of courses	0	18	65	1
(e) Required course	1	12	70	1

The survey revealed that the course functioned predominantly as a terminal course for non-science majors. A total of 70 schools reported that the course served this function. Of these, 42 schools indicated that this was its only function. Furthermore, a total of 50 schools indicated

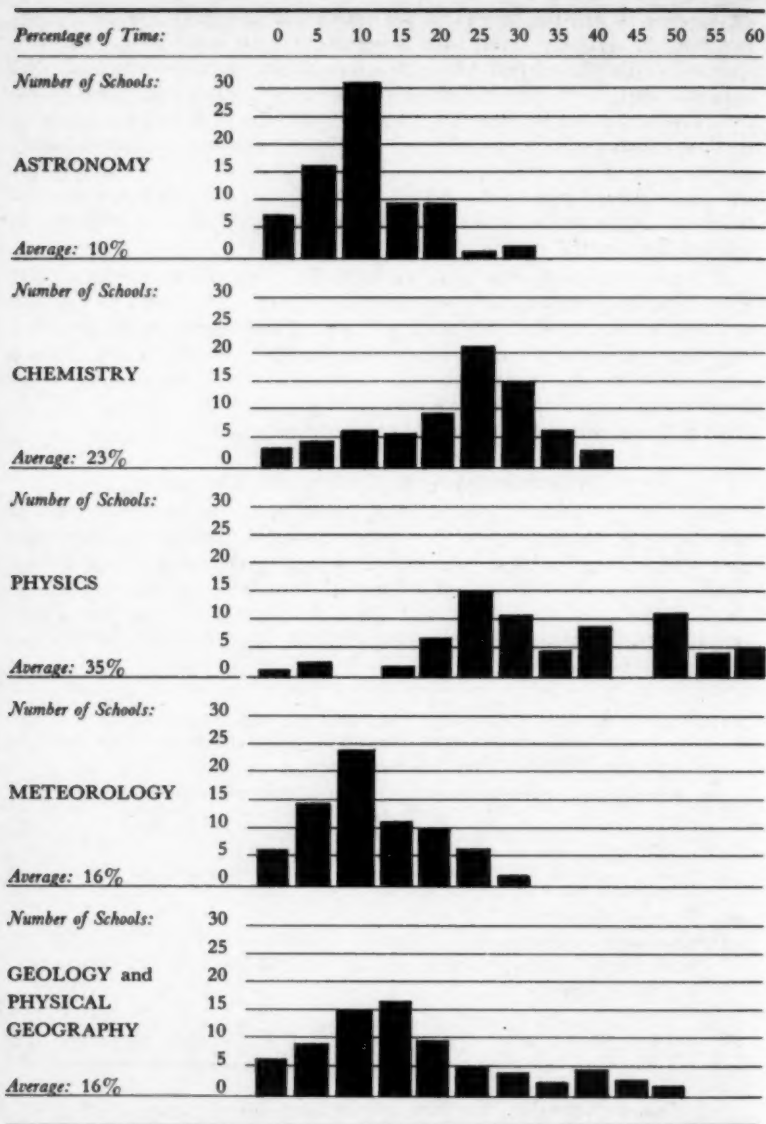


FIGURE I.—PERCENTAGES OF TIME SPENT ON EACH OF THE FIVE PHYSICAL SCIENCE SUBJECT AREAS



that the course was primarily developed to aid slow learners, and 2 schools which gave a negative response commented that the course was "not *primarily*" developed for this purpose and that it "partly" served this purpose. Only 5 schools in the entire survey did not teach both chemistry and physics. Three of these 5 schools offered chemistry but not physics. It was interesting to note at this point that none of these 3 schools indicated that the physical science course functioned as a substitute for physics. Nine schools stated the course was required only if one of the other sciences—*i.e.*, chemistry, physics, biology, *etc.*—was not taken to fulfill the science requirement for graduation.

#### LABORATORY WORK

Table V shows the status of laboratory work in the physical science course. It appears that at present personal experiences in physical science for the student are quite limited. Laboratory facilities for chemistry, physics, and biology are available in our schools, but the course in physical science is a recent addition to the curriculum, and laboratories which meet its special needs have not been provided. This may account for the present pattern of demonstrations rather than student laboratory work. Under present circumstances it would seem best to assign physical science to the physics laboratory and to make provision for the use of the chemistry laboratory for a few weeks.

TABLE V.—THE TYPES OF LABORATORY WORK, THEIR COMBINATIONS, AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS USING EACH IN TEACHING THE COURSE IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE

<i>Type of Laboratory Work Being Used</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>
Frequent or regularly scheduled laboratory periods	2
Occasional laboratory periods as needed or at the teacher's discretion	1
Teacher demonstrations	15
Frequent or regularly scheduled laboratory periods and teacher demonstrations	5
Frequent or regularly scheduled laboratory periods, student demonstrations, and teacher demonstrations	7
Occasional laboratory periods or at the teacher's discretion, and teacher demonstrations	11
Occasional laboratory periods or at the teacher's discretion, student demonstrations, and teacher demonstrations	26
Student demonstrations and teacher demonstrations	16
All four types	1

### REASONS FOR SCHOOLS HAVING DISCONTINUED THE COURSE

Eight schools which participated in the survey are not presently teaching the course in physical science, but they had taught the course in the past. Insight into some of the values and limitations of the course was obtained through an examination of the reasons given by these schools for discontinuing the course. In 2 of the schools, the value of the course had been to serve a specific need which no longer existed at the time of the survey. In one of these schools the course had functioned as a substitute for chemistry and general physics. The other school had taught the course to a specific group of boys with no mathematical skills who needed a science credit. This school was extremely small and otherwise had no need for a course of this nature. Some limitations of the course were brought out in the remaining 6 reasons given for discontinuance. One person wrote that the students desired to take college board examinations and that there were no examinations in physical science, and another wrote that "demands of college entrance had caused its being dropped" in his school. Another teacher gave "lack of time and no particular need at this time" as the reasons for discontinuing the course. The 3 other reasons given were (1) that the course "was considered too general and limited to be effective"; (2) that the only students who took it "were those who needed points to be graduated"; and (3) that there was "no adequately prepared teacher for such a course."

### CONCLUSIONS

1. The course in physical science is widely used to aid slow learners.
2. The course is generally taught for one year's duration to eleventh- and twelfth-grade students.
3. The course is predominantly a terminal one for non-science majors.
4. There has been a definite increase in the number of courses in physical science since World War II.
5. If a student elects only one year of a physical science, either chemistry or physics is too limited and specialized for general education.
6. The high-school course in physical science usually includes the fundamentals of astronomy, chemistry, geology, meteorology, classical physics, and nuclear physics.
7. The laboratory portion of this course is not well-organized at this time.
8. Demonstrations, films, and filmstrips are used extensively.
9. There have been difficulties when a teacher has tried to achieve within a particular class two inconsistent goals: (1) the course as an aid to slow learners, and (2) a more suitable course for the general education of able students.
10. Colleges have generally accepted this course for entrance of non-science majors.

# A Study in Ability Grouping

HAROLD C. WELKE  
and DESMOND H. BRAGG

## INTRODUCTION

FOR some time our faculty has felt that we could do more to meet the individual needs of the students. In casting about for an answer to the problem, "ability grouping" was suggested more and more frequently. In seeking advice from various sources on the subject, we were given conflicting opinions about the efficacy of such procedures. Obviously the problem needed further investigation. We were no little surprised to learn that there is very little scientifically proven data available on the subject. Prudence therefore dictated the present study undertaken by the writers and presented here with the hope that it will be of some use to fellow teachers and administrators.

### CURRENT OPINIONS AND BACKGROUND WITH REFERENCE TO ABILITY GROUPING

We must examine carefully the present demand that we group our high-school students according to ability. That ability, or homogeneous, grouping is not new goes without saying. This fact, however, should be brought to the attention of the general public, and to those who are currently advocating such a program. As the public schools increased their enrollments, especially with nonacademic students, the differences in achievement and ability among students in the ungrouped classes became increasingly noticeable and, in some cases, ridiculous.

As a solution to this problem, a movement began in some states about forty years ago to group students in classes according to their academic achievement and aptitude. In 1932 Billett found that most large schools (over 500 pupils) tended to use ability grouping.<sup>1</sup> One of the writers well recalls this practice some thirty years ago in the graded schools of Beaumont, Texas. Grades, 3-7, were divided into A, B, C, and D classes. "A" classes were composed of the best students, etc. The other writer recalls the practice in certain schools in the Milwaukee, Wisconsin, public schools during the early thirties.

Late in the nineteen thirties, a new wave of educational theory arose to proclaim that such practices were "unsound" and "undemocratic" educationally; then "Learn by doing!" and "Develop the whole child!" became the slogans. This reasoning went on to imply that all sorts of ills

<sup>1</sup>Roy O. Billett. *Provisions for Individual Differences in Marking and Promotion*, p. 18, National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 13 (U.S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932), in Paul B. Jacobson and William C. Rowis, *Duties of School Principals*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1941. P. 379.

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would be produced in our society by grouping. In many schools, grouping was consequently thrown out with great fervor. This practice continued in the nineteen-forties. Douglass mentions stigma, poor selection, lack of qualified teachers for the gifted and the slow groups, not grouping separately for each subject among the reasons for dropping ability grouping.<sup>2</sup>

Many Wisconsin schools, and others, had unfavorable experiences with grouping. The educational leaders became wary of anything that suggested homogeneous grouping. But the trend reversed again, as Douglass mentions, in favor of ability grouping, at least in the larger cities. It was realized that perhaps "the baby was poured out with the bath" because abandonment of grouping resulted in even more severe problems with regard to individual differences. By 1947, fifty-three per cent of city systems had some form of ability grouping and fifty-eight per cent had special remedial groups.<sup>3</sup> Willis indicates that grouping in large cities still continues.<sup>4</sup>

#### *Advantages and Disadvantages of Ability Grouping*

What are the facts concerning ability grouping? Why is there a need to review the information relating to it? Let us survey more thoroughly this controversial subject. Superior students, whose talents are so vitally needed, are evidently not being sufficiently challenged or inspired to continue their education. The percentage of dropouts among those who do begin college is great.<sup>5</sup> The National Manpower Council in 1951 reported that twenty-five per cent of all 18-year-old youths had I.Q.'s of 110 or over. One out of five of this group did not finish high school. Forty per cent of them entered college, but only about one half of these were graduated.<sup>6</sup> In Wisconsin only fifty-eight per cent of the top half of our high-school graduates plan any type of further education.

Apparently the need exists for relatively early identification of and special provisions for the gifted child. Among these, ability grouping ranks high both in acclaim and criticism. Since the trend seems to be toward ability grouping again it will profit us to examine the past and current thinking on the subject. Reeve believes that each child's ability should be developed to the fullest. He feels that it is impossible to do this in our present schools, especially in the over-crowded situation that now exists. He does not believe that separate grouping harms the slow students. By his own personal experience, he claims that all groups—slow, bright, and average—benefit by being separated.<sup>7</sup> The superior stu-

<sup>2</sup>Harl R. Douglass. *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools*. New York: Ginn and Co. 1954. P. 337.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*, P. 336.

<sup>4</sup>Benjamin C. Willis. *Report on the Program for the Gifted Child to the Chicago Board of Education*. Chicago: Chicago Teachers College. 1957. P. 1.

<sup>5</sup>*Ibid.*, P. 1.

<sup>6</sup>Paul A. Witty. "The Gifted Child," *The Nation's Schools*, LVII (February 1956), P. 66. In Willis, *op. cit.*, P. 2.

<sup>7</sup>William D. Reeve. "The Problem of Varying Abilities Among Students in Mathematics," *The Education Digest*, XXI (May 1956), Pp. 40-43.

dents find no challenge and never develop their capacities if assigned only the average work. Slow students, if assigned work that is always beyond their abilities, learn little and may actually suffer personality damage if continually failed or given low grades.<sup>8</sup>

Hoover feels that grouping students enabled his superior biology students to be motivated to do more advanced work. He also concluded that, on the basis of an anonymous questionnaire, little or no stigma was attached to being in a particular group; that more effective teaching resulted in the larger classes; and that a greater sense of belonging resulted from working with other students of similar capacities. He feels that two harmful practices are eliminated by ability grouping: trying to teach the "average" students and judging students on a competitive basis regardless of ability to do school work.<sup>9</sup>

The training of geniuses in our democratic society has been neglected too long according to Wilson. He feels that America needs all the high-level ability it can get. He believes that ability grouping will probably increase. He cites an example of a high school where the prestige of the honors classes equalled the prestige of the football team.<sup>10</sup> Prestige for intellectual achievement is certainly needed to combat the extreme anti-intellectual attitude that creates a very unfavorable atmosphere in many schools with regard to maximum effort in studies. It is time that bright students display their knowledge proudly instead of apologetically with regard to their fellow students!

We should be honest with our students and not make them believe that all students have the same academic potentialities. No more stigma should be attached to grouping the retarded than to crutches or wheel chairs for physical weaknesses.<sup>11</sup>

Willis lists six advantages of ability grouping: (1) the teacher can plan a program with more scope and depth than for the average student; (2) more individual learning activities are possible for the gifted learner; (3) gifted students tend to associate with each other; (4) intellectual challenge is more stimulating; (5) more out-of-school projects are possible for the gifted group than for the heterogeneous class; and (6) removing the gifted from a class encourages and gives more recognition to the other students.<sup>12</sup> Willis also lists some of the main arguments against ability grouping: (1) gifted students may develop snobbery and undemocratic attitudes; (2) superior students may become impatient with less gifted and thus lose opportunity for training for leadership; (3) average student loses stimulation of ideas of the gifted; (4) difficult to identify the gifted;

<sup>8</sup>Committee on Exceptional Children and the Reporters of *Exchange* magazine, *How to Educate the Gifted Child*. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council. 1956. P. 13.

<sup>9</sup>Kenneth Hoover. "An Experiment on Grouping Within the Classroom," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 30 (October 1955), Pp. 326-331.

<sup>10</sup>Howard E. Wilson. "Educational Implications of the Nation's Manpower Needs," *School Review*, LXV (Spring 1957), Pp. 35-40.

<sup>11</sup>Anna E. Lawson. "Track School: Its Pupils Move on Six Ability Paths," *Clearing House*, 25 (May 1951), Pp. 515-520.

<sup>12</sup>Willis, *op. cit.*, P. 40.

and (5) trait differences do not correlate with the general level of an individual's ability.<sup>13</sup>

Thomas feels that homogeneous grouping is possible only in large schools, and wide variations in ability will still exist even though grouped. He believes that homogeneous grouping harms the all-round development of the pupil. He states that wise guidance will aid students to take courses in which they can be successful.<sup>14</sup>

Why segregate in school when, in the world of business and in the professions, people are not segregated? Tonsor thinks that the slow learner bitterly resents being placed in a special group. He claims that the slow learners wanted to be in normal classes. He states that they are stimulated by working with the gifted and that they profit from their work.<sup>15</sup> This seems to be one of the strongest arguments against ability grouping, especially if teachers tend to "look down" on their less capable students. Teachers are, after all, human beings and most of us have to be on guard to avoid this feeling, especially when low ability is accompanied by poor attitudes or discipline problems.

#### PRACTICES IN CERTAIN WISCONSIN HIGH SCHOOLS WITH REGARD TO ABILITY GROUPING

The writers recently completed a survey of practices with ability grouping among fifteen Wisconsin high schools, enrolling from 470 to 1570 students. The schools were chosen at random from the directory of Wisconsin schools. All schools responded. Five questions were asked and comments were invited to explain any system which was not included in the five questions. A summary of that survey follows:

QUESTION 1: *Do you group according to ability in all subjects having more than one section?*—Only one school answered "Yes" and qualified this by saying that they grouped according to ability in all but industrial arts and home economics. This has been done for thirty years and everyone likes it! Another school said that they planned to do much more along this line next year in order to give the college preparatory students more help.

QUESTION 2: *Do you group according to ability in only the required subjects?*—Five schools of the fifteen answered "Yes" to this question. One school qualified its affirmative answer by saying that they grouped in English 10, 11, American History 11, and American Problems. These are grouped High and Low. A school with an enrollment of 750 stated that they divide each required subject into Regular (40%) and Advanced (60%) groups. "Advanced" are average to very bright. Grouping students according to ability in the *required* subjects seemed to be the *most prevalent* practice among the schools contacted. One school with about

<sup>13</sup>*Ibid.*, P. 41.

<sup>14</sup>Harrison C. Thomas. "The High School as a Common School," *School Review*, LXIII (April 1955), Pp. 214-219.

<sup>15</sup>Charles A. Tonsor. "Must We Segregate?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 37 (November 1953), Pp. 76-77.



1,000 students answered "No" to this question, but said that they group according to ability and interest in both mathematics and science. The principal added the comment that "we are planning to extend our homogeneous grouping to other subject matter areas and to improve our methods of division." In a bulletin from the curriculum department of Madison, Wisconsin, public schools, the following paragraph is headed "Aims of the Program for Grouping Madison High School Students According to Ability and Achievement":

The problem of individual differences is exceedingly important, and has a vital bearing on course offerings, materials of instruction, and teaching procedures. Since the "gifted" as well as the "average" and "slow" learners attend the same school and take required courses, each should be given a curriculum which presents a challenge to him. Grouping students in required courses according to ability, achievement, and ambition should help to take care of individual differences and promote better learning experiences for the youth concerned. Grouping should be as flexible as possible and should be practiced in required subjects.<sup>16</sup>

In a letter, Dr. Mennes, curriculum consultant of the Madison Public Schools, stressed the fact that individual differences have a vital bearing on course offerings, materials of instruction, and teaching procedures. Each student is programmed according to his achievement in subject areas. It would be conceivable in their system, to have a student in an advanced mathematics class and also in a remedial course in English. This, incidentally, would help avoid one of the main criticisms of ability grouping as pointed out earlier in this article.

It must be kept in mind that these views are from fairly large Wisconsin high schools. Ability grouping in small Wisconsin high schools presents a problem that will be alluded to later in this article.

**QUESTION 3:** *Do you group only the very slow ones in the required subjects?*—One large school answered "Yes," stating also that they planned next year to separate thirty or so gifted students in separate sophomore English and biology classes. This principal stated further that in his school, chemistry, physics, third- and fourth-year foreign languages and mathematics, and fourth-year English automatically have only those of highest ability.

**QUESTION 4:** *Do you group only the very bright students in the required subjects?*—Only one school answered "Yes" to this question. The same school answered "Yes" to Question 3, so it may be assumed that this school sections according to ability in the required subjects on a High and Low basis. For all practical purposes it could be counted in the "Yes" column of Question 2.

**QUESTION 5:** *Do you use a different system than the ones mentioned in the above four questions?*—A school in the 1,000-student class groups only the mentally handicapped. However, they add that the junior high school

<sup>16</sup>A. H. Mennes. "A Suggested Program of Study for the Madison Secondary Schools," 1958.

has had a three-way grouping for a number of years. Another 1,000-student school answered that they group in English, science, biology, and social studies particularly. Of the fifteen schools, five were not grouping at all or were grouping to a very limited extent. Ten of the schools were grouping extensively, and some of them were planning to extend this practice even further. This seems to indicate that homogeneous grouping is a general practice among the medium-sized and larger high schools of Wisconsin. Not one school indicated that they were discontinuing the practice of homogeneous grouping, but three schools said quite emphatically that they were going to do more of this sort of planning in the future.

In terms of students affected by grouping, the survey shows that of 13,930 students represented, 9,782 are involved in moderate or extensive grouping. In other words, seventy per cent are grouped. Interestingly enough, this corresponds to Billett's results in his study made in 1932. He found that seventy per cent of the schools with enrollments over 500 students used ability grouping.<sup>17</sup>

It must be stated that the trend seems definitely more and more towards segregation and special training for the superior students. In fact, a recent article claims that it is no longer a matter for debate: "Leaders in education for some time have been arranging for such classes—whether in cosmopolitan schools or in special schools, but the challenge to our national security has made the acceleration of such schemes imperative."<sup>18</sup> It should also be mentioned that research is finally being done on a nation-wide basis in the matter of aiding our talented youths. The Carnegie Foundation is sponsoring a two-year project to study the gifted, and Columbia University is also doing research in the field.<sup>19</sup>

#### SOME QUESTIONS AND COMMENTS

1. Special grouping requires special teachers—dedicated, alert, and understanding. Should we move into this area before we secure this type of teacher?

2. If ability grouping is good for students in large communities, would it not serve equally well the needs of students in small high schools? In view of the many small high schools in existence, would ability grouping lend impetus to school district reorganization in the mid-west, and elsewhere?

3. If a small school cannot use ability grouping, would not acceleration and enrichment be a fruitful field for study by these schools?

<sup>17</sup>Billett, *op. cit.*, P. 48.

<sup>18</sup>"What Should the Senior High School Do for Its Gifted and Talented Youth?" (Mary E. Meade's summary of presentation of a discussion group composed of Neal Duncan, chairman; John E. Codwell, and Arthur J. Havlovic, discussants.) *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 42 (April 1958), Pp. 26-30.

<sup>19</sup>A. Harry Passow. "The Talented Youth Project," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 42 (February 1958), Pp. 102-108.



4. With schools overcrowded and staffed, to some extent at least, by personnel not highly qualified in the subject matter of their field, would not ability grouping give the schools an opportunity to put the best students under the guidance of the teachers strongest in a particular field of study?

5. Could small schools try some of these techniques: centers for the gifted children recruited from three or four neighboring schools; summer school programs for several schools combined; visiting lecturers from colleges or universities?

6. We hear much about the "new" information in science and the "new" methods in mathematics. Isn't it time that more *new* textbooks and manuals were made available for use by our public schools?

7. Our colleges and universities are still open to all who qualify in terms of credits and averages. Why do some educators fear ability grouping in high schools on the basis of its being undemocratic or causing social stratification? Won't ability grouping aid each student to develop his capabilities in a class of his peers?

No educator or administrator advocates undoing all that has been done, and well done, to aid the slow learner and the mythical average student, but what seems to be called for here is that attention finally be paid to the talented child. The race that does not value trained intelligence as the philosopher and mathematician Whitehead warned us years ago may not survive. Certainly it is within our power as a nation to have a society of trained intellects and still hold fast to the ideal of Jefferson, "that all men are created equal and endowed with certain unalienable rights."

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#### NASSP STAFF UTILIZATION STUDY CONTINUES

Chairman Lloyd S. Michael of the NASSP Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School announces the appointment of Robert B. Moore of Stanford University as Associate Director of the Commission. In this capacity he will assist J. Lloyd Trump of the University of Illinois who is continuing to serve as Director. The Commission received in June an additional grant of \$350,000 from the Ford Foundation to continue experimental studies during the school year 1958-59. The January 1959 issue of the NASSP BULLETIN will be devoted to reports of progress in Commission sponsored projects during 1957-58 and information regarding projects under way during 1958-59. By the close of the current year, experimental studies will have been carried on in approximately 100 junior and senior high schools located throughout the country. The Commission plans to conclude its work by September 1960.

# College Plans and Scholastic Standing of Students Taking Psychology in High School

T. L. ENGLE

THERE is evidence<sup>1</sup> that, on the average, university marks in psychology courses for students having had psychology in high school are no higher than the marks of students in the same classes not having had psychology in high school. However, for students believing their high-school course in psychology has been of assistance in their university psychology course, university course marks are significantly higher than the corresponding marks for students believing high-school psychology has not been of assistance to them. These data seem to raise the question: "What kind of students tend to take psychology in high school? Do superior students tend to elect the course, is it a 'dumping ground' for poor students, or is the distribution 'normal'?"

In April 1958 an attempt was made to answer this question by sending a short questionnaire to 200 high-school teachers of psychology in thirty-six states. Replies which could be used in any way were received from eighty-one high schools in twenty-eight states.

Teachers were asked to determine how many of their psychology students planned to enter college and how many planned to take at least an introductory course in psychology at that level. Of 4,479 students taking psychology in high school, 2,431 (54.3 per cent) planned to enter college, and of these students planning to enter college, 72.2 per cent planned to take at least one psychology course at that level. Of the 4,479 students, 1,887 were boys and 2,592 were girls. The percentage of boys (53.8) planning to enter college was practically equal to the percentage of girls (54.6) planning to enter college, but significantly more girls expected to take psychology in college than was the case for boys (78.2 per cent as compared to 63.8 per cent). Of all students taking psychology in high school, 40.2 per cent were thinking in terms of further work in psychology at the college level. Of course, it is well known that plans for college often fail to result in matriculation, but it is important to note that so many students taking psychology in high school were thinking in terms of college training and further work in psychology at that level. This is not to say that high-school psychology should be taught primarily as preparation for college psychology, but it would seem

<sup>1</sup>T. L. Engle, "High School Psychology Courses as Related to University Psychology Courses," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 1957, 41, 38-42. (Dec.). Also his article "University Psychology Students Having Had Psychology in High School," *American Psychologist*, 1958, 13, 116-117. (March).

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to suggest the importance of giving high-school students the correct impression of the science of psychology.

In order to learn something of the general scholastic standing of students taking psychology in high school, teachers were asked to indicate how many of their psychology students were from the highest scholastic fourth of their high-school class, how many were from the next fourth, and so on. Inasmuch as many students taking psychology in high school are seniors, it was thought that such distributions would be available. However, many teachers were unable to give this information. Usable data were received from forty-three high schools with a total of 1,922 students (720 boys, 1,202 girls) in their psychology classes. The distribution is indicated in Table I. It should be borne in mind that in a few high schools psychology was required of all seniors.

TABLE I.—SCHOLASTIC DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS TAKING PSYCHOLOGY

Quartile Interval	Boys		Girls		Both	
	<i>N</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Per cent</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Fourth (highest)	204	28.3	547	45.5	751	38.5
Third	194	26.9	338	28.1	532	27.6
Second	181	25.1	214	17.8	395	20.7
First (lowest)	141	19.6	103	8.6	244	13.2

Another way of looking at these data is to note that 1,283 of the 1,922 psychology students (66.8 per cent) were from the upper halves of their high-school classes, and that there was a significant sex difference. Of the boys, 55.3 per cent were from the upper halves of their classes whereas 73.6 per cent of the girls were from the upper halves of their classes.

It is of further interest to point out that of students from the upper halves of their classes who planned to enter college, 75.6 per cent also planned to take psychology there, whereas of students from the lower halves of their classes who planned to enter college, 61.4 per cent also planned to take psychology there. The difference is significant. A breakdown of these figures in terms of sex reveals that significantly more upper-half boys (71.1 per cent) than of lower-half boys (52.6 per cent) planning to enter college also planned to take psychology there. The difference between upper-half girls (78.0 per cent) and lower-half girls (72.4 per cent) planning to enter college and also planning to take psychology there is not significant.

In summary, the present data seem to suggest that, although there is a somewhat normal distribution, the high-school course in psychology tends to attract above-average students rather than serving as a "dumping ground" for poor students, this being especially true for girls. At least half of the students taking psychology in high school plan to enter college and nearly three fourths of these students planning to enter college plan to take some further work in psychology at that level, this being especially true for girls and for students in the upper halves of their high-school classes.

## A Lateral Extension for the Gifted Minds

ELEANOR M. GLEASON

WITHIN recent years we in the United States have been shocked by instances wherein expert scientists, trained in our own schools, have been found guilty of betraying secrets to Russia. Such cases have made us keenly aware of the fact that education should involve the soul as well as the brain; that there is a communal and social involvement in education which many of us in public school systems have been overlooking. The father of Dr. Klaus Fuchs, the traitorous English atomic scientist, explained his son's great failure by pointing out that the brilliant mind needs but little help from educators in acquiring factual material, but that this same brilliant mind often needs directing in the way he uses this factual material in situations where rights of other people are concerned. Indeed, we have seen too many instances in the past ten years in which men have been trapped by their own brilliance of mind. Therefore, we should be extremely cautious in this time of concentrating on the gifted student that we don't forget that the brilliant mind cannot succeed in real living unless we educators direct this kind of mind to an awareness of moral values.

Terman has found that "there are significant differences between the early interests and the social attitudes of those who become physical scientists and those who concentrated in social studies, law, and the humanities."<sup>1</sup> Note the phrase, "early interests." That phrase makes us realize that we must find the brilliant minds early, and then attempt to inculcate in them central values and an appreciation of our own democratic tradition. Terman's study also shows us that both teachers and students must be made aware of the relationship between philosophical principles and every day living and learning. As the young student manifests any preference, as for science education, then his teachers must try to expose him to history and philosophy so that the gifted student's mental activities may be extended laterally as well as vertically. By that I mean that the vertical enrichment might be in the science field whereas the social studies might well be correlated with the factual findings in the sciences. Many young science students might take an entirely different approach to their science studies if they were given the opportunity to realize that great scientists like Einstein and Newton believed in a God who had made a universe in which there is a scheme of things that explains why one scientific finding fits into others like one piece in a jig-

<sup>1</sup>L. M. Terman, "Are Scientists Different?", *Scientific American*, January 1955, p. 25.

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saw puzzle. Einstein's efforts to complete and establish his Unified Field Theory is the best evidence of his faith in the universe planned by God. Indeed, Einstein has said that he didn't believe that God would "shoot dice with the Universe."

Practically every school system in the United States has been sold on the idea of vertical enrichment of our educational system in science and mathematics especially. However, one of the biggest problems in the world today is the very great differential in the progress of applied and pure science as contrasted with the progress of the social sciences. Vannevar Bush puts emphasis on this problem by writing, "Plans for the discovery and development of scientific talent must be related to the other needs of society for high ability; science, in the words of the man in the street, must not, and must not try to, hog it all. . . . There is never enough ability at high levels to satisfy all the needs of the nation: we would not seek to draw into science any more of it than science's proportionate share."<sup>2</sup> Let's go a step further and expose the science student to the other needs of society and let's do it steadily and gradually from the first moment that the gifted student is discovered.

Before discussing ways of integrating science studies with the "other needs of society" let us consider ways of spotting the gifted student. Scheifele warns us educators that we must be continually on the alert to notice certain traits as, often, due to psychological and physiological lows in childrens' lives, their talents may lie hidden for a year or two. This loss of time is a serious waste to the student and to the nation. These are Scheifele's sign posts of the gifted student:

1. Longer interest span and greater retention
2. Ability to learn more rapidly
3. Less need for drill
4. Higher degree of intellectual curiosity; keenness of observation
5. Superior reading ability in speed and comprehension
6. Superior ability in reasoning and general logical thinking
7. Noticeably wider interest range
8. Greater ability to work independently and intensively
9. Superior interest in and capacity for abstract subjects
10. Greater originality in intellectual tasks and greater enjoyment in using the various mental processes.<sup>3</sup>

Recently many articles have appeared that have described ways of detecting the gifted student and almost every one of these has mentioned the fact that—contrary to popular opinion—the endowed student has better body structure and more attractive mien than the average. So, with this battery of signposts, there is a much better chance of finding the brilliant students in the earliest schools years.

However, it takes a gifted teacher to deal with the gifted student. Furthermore, such a teacher needs much more time for this type of work

<sup>2</sup>Vannevar Bush, *Science, the Endless Frontier*, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. 1946. p. 136.

<sup>3</sup>Marian Scheifele, "The Gifted Need an Enriched Program," *Instructor*, December 1955, p. 14.

than most teachers of this day and age have. Work with brilliant minds entails taking notice of individual differences. This means that, at least after the first quarter of the school year, the teacher of the gifted must prepare work that goes down several paths instead of the one main path that is customary for the ordinary class. How to find gifted teachers already in service is easy. How to recruit more is another problem. Therefore, it is important that ways of using the gifted teachers we do have be developed with research time allowed them.

Bay City, Michigan, about ten years ago, began experimental research to ascertain if it be feasible to use people with less than professional teacher-training to do many non-teaching tasks such as keeping attendance, distributing milk, selling pencils for one fund or another, dressing and undressing the younger children, and preventing interruptions in the actual teaching processes. From names offered by the PTA officers, school principals, and certain key teachers, eight teaching-aides were chosen by the control board of this study and by the administrators of the Bay City schools. Some had only high-school education; one—only one—had a college degree, others had some college education. This first group was offered the prevailing wage for unskilled labor in that city—\$45 a week and they took it! Their orientation program lasted only one day just before the opening of schools in the fall. However these aides were given each week thereafter during school time a 2-hour seminar in classroom methods, psychology, and child growth and development. They were also taught various clerical tasks and how to operate duplicating machines and audio-visual apparatus.

When time studies were made to evaluate the worth of the aides on a time basis, they showed that the aide had saved the professional teacher twenty-six per cent of her time by releasing her from the many non-teaching functions. Furthermore the grade levels—still the best criteria of accomplishment—got higher in significant correlation with the decrease in the number of these non-teaching activities. An unexpected issue from this Bay City Plan was the recruitment of some of the aides into teacher-training programs after only one year of aide work. This aide plan which is being used in a different mechanical structure here in Connecticut may be a partial answer to the question of how to get more gifted teachers, as these first recruits, at least, were extremely interested in the work and extremely able.

The twenty-six per cent time saving earned by the aide method is one way of finding extra time for these teachers of the gifted. More individual time spent with the brilliant youngsters would give the teacher opportunity to round out the experience program of these students; to increase their chances of obtaining emotional stability and adjustment to their expanding and changing culture; and to help them acquire moral discernment. Time spent in this manner would surely be insurance against the ego-centric, self-satisfied, arrogant student who has found his own brain sharper, quicker, and more efficient in his school experiences



than those of some of his teachers and than those of most of his fellows. Time spent on this kind of lateral extension of education along with more time involved in the vertical extension of the desired subject matter would tend to give the gifted student compassion for his fellows instead of the contempt that has misled some famous scientists and statesmen into the snare of Communism.

An understanding of the fullness and richness of facts as they affect people and the whole science, or art, of living is of necessity the forté of the gifted because they are the only ones capable of grasping this fullness. Further, it is the obligation of the gifted to attempt this understanding so that wise men may deal gently with people in this radically changing world. If our curricula had been set up for the integration of just such involvements of the present and hereafter lives of people with the so-called subject matter of schools, it is quite possible that Dr. William Pollard, the deacon of Oak Ridge, might not have waited till the age of forty-one before he was invested into Holy Orders as a deacon of the Episcopal Church. Education in the more objective field of the physical sciences led this man to the position of executive director of the Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies at Oak Ridge, Tennessee. Dr. Pollard's duties as a father made him a lay reader in the Church of St. Steven at Oak Ridge. His own childrens' questions stimulated him to a "lateral extension" of his own field and he began to study metaphysics. This study gave so much more meaning to his life that he made this statement: "As the ideas of the several theologians of great stature alive today—men with far more gifted minds than their predecessors of the past century—as these ideas filter down, many scientists may come to realize the world they think they are investigating simply does not exist. I guess the relationship between man and the universe has come to interest me more than the one between nucleons and mesons."

This is the direct antithesis of Dr. Klaus Fuchs. This is the exceptional man who, himself, found the  $x$  and  $y$  axes of the fully developed and integrated education that involves the soul as well as that part of the mind that deals only with factual data. Now, let us as educators help the gifted with whom we come in contact to experience this enriched kind of education so that the brilliance of their minds will not ensnare, but, rather, save themselves and their peoples.

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#### 200,000 KOREAN VETS CAN RETURN TO COLLEGE

**EDUCATION** U. S. A. reports that the Veterans Administration is easing its rules so that some 200,000 Korean War vets can resume their college careers. The new ruling will restore eligibility under the G. I. Bill to some one-million Korean vets who lost it when they dropped out of school. The VA is sending letters to each vet affected, and expects at least one fifth of them to resume their education this fall.

# An Evaluation of Our Special School Program

NORMAN SCHACHTER

ROBERT Fulton Junior High School's social adjustment program has been in operation now for two years. It is now possible to evaluate the program (as outlined and explained in the November 1957, issue of *THE BULLETIN* under the heading "In Lieu of a Special School") in a much clearer light than previously. The progress has been tremendous and the program has been developed into the most constructive procedure in handling recalcitrant students.

Our social adjustment program has established itself in the eyes of the faculty and in the minds of the student body. Everyone has profited by the program since it has helped to stabilize and to establish a disciplinary tone within the classroom and school. Students profit through the removal of the uncooperative learners. Teachers benefit through the opportunity afforded by having the additional time to present their daily offerings without constant interruptions by the troublesome pupil. The major consideration of the program lies in the help it gives all students. The uncooperative ones are taken care of very nicely and quickly. This provides a type of enrichment program since the teacher is able to devote the additional time in preparing lessons to challenge all of the students.

One of the primary purposes in preparing this follow-up report is to answer so many questions which have been asked since the publication of the original report in the November 1957, issue of *THE BULLETIN*. Most of the questions have been along the same line. A secondary consideration is to present some new parts of the program which we are now using.

## A FEW NUMBERS

At the sixteenth week of this semester, 124 boys were given the opportunity of going through the program. Of the 124 boys this semester, 30 of them were returnees from the previous semester. Eighteen of them have been completely released from the program. Of the 124 boys, only five have had to return for further therapy. The average length of time boys carried check slips was 5.07. Once again, it is well to remember that these boys are out of their regularly assigned classes for one period only. Quite often all the boy does is to carry a check sheet to his various classes. This acts as enough of a deterrent to keep him in line and in a normal learning situation. Since September of the last school year (1957 until May 1958) we have had 8,646 separate period checks. The number may

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seem like a typographical error but it is 8,646. There have been an average of 73 separate period checks per day. The bookkeeping has become routine as the system of checking has been developed into a systematic affair.

#### A FEW QUESTIONS ASKED ABOUT THE PROGRAM

1. *What subject matter does Mr. Hunter, the social adjustment teacher, teach the boys while they are in the special adjustment class?*

Mr. Hunter reviews and teaches the subject matter of the class the boy misses. It is the teacher's responsibility to include class assignments for the student when he is referred to our social adjustment class. Mr. Hunter stresses this point when the boy is assigned to the program. We make it a policy not to retain a student in this program for more than five consecutive days. In this way we are able to insure some continuity of classroom learning even though the boy is out of his normal class. This also insures our wishes that some of the newer teachers will have long-range plan classroom assignments. We find that the program has increased materially by insisting that the work be given to the student by his regular classroom teacher for the period he is out of the normal class.

2. *Is there any designation as to the mental ability a boy must have before he can be assigned to the social adjustment class?*

No. We do not designate as to the intelligence for placement in our program. Fortunately, we have several other programs in the Los Angeles City School System which provides for the low average and below average IQ students. Our Point I program consists of students under 75 IQ. We have a specially trained teacher to handle this class. He must meet different state requirements for a credential. We have yet to have any student referred to the social adjustment program from the Point One classes. They receive an unusual amount of help from that particular teacher. We also have special remedial classes for our below average norm in student load. We attempt to avoid segregating our social adjustment class on an intelligence basis. We have found that intelligence for classroom behavior has not followed any definite pattern for admission to this program.

3. *With what subjects do you find that these boys generally have most difficulty? Is there any differences among electives, minor subjects, and the major fields of study?*

That is an interesting question. At first we ignored the type of class from which referred. However, this past semester we have been running a frequency chart by types of classes rather than by teachers. We have come up with some rather startling revelations which have aided us in planning for this year. Of the 124 boys referred, this semester the breakdown has been as follows in regard to class level:

B7's—4 youngsters

A7's—22

B8's—11

"

"

A8's—32 youngsters

B9's—22

A9's—35

"

"

Eighty-eight of the referrals came from classrooms. Forty-four of them came from home-room teachers. As the student is only in the home room for a short time (about twelve minutes), it was a clear indication that a great many of the teachers weren't planning and utilizing the time to the students' advantage. The remaining 36 students originated from other areas outside of the classroom. They shouldn't have been included, but, since they were border-line cases along discipline lines, they were thrown into the hopper. As a personal observation, it is my belief that some teachers have more difficulty with students regardless of the subject field they teach. Although we have not run a frequency chart of teachers' referrals, I personally believe some teachers would like to take advantage of any program. We keep it at a minimum.

4. *Do you feel that this sort of approach might be effective with girls as well as boys, but as a mixed group?*

Although there has been some work done along the mixed-group idea, we believe that it isn't nearly as effective. We segregate boys from the girls in this program as a more definite approach to more realistic guidance. Far more can be attained with an all-boy group or with an all-girl group. I believe that mixed groups will materially weaken a social adjustment program because one of the deterrents is removal from the "happy hour." As a rule, most of our boys who have been involved in this program are the "play-boy" type and enjoy the company of the other sex. A tremendous amount of help is given these young people by the teacher in charge by discussion regarding many items which could not be discussed in a mixed group.

5. *When does Mr. Hunter, the social adjustment teacher, eat lunch, and is there any problem concerning disposal of lunch and wrappers?*

I reviewed this question with Mr. Hunter and he laughingly stated that the ideal teacher for a program of this type would be one who eats a heavy breakfast and a heavier dinner and can overlook the lunch period. However, as Mr. Hunter is the long, lean type, he makes it a point to have his lunch prior to the regular lunch period or after the regular lunch period. Occasionally, he may have a number of students in the period prior to lunch and he takes them with him and seats these youngsters in the lunch area while he is eating. The boys have been structured and realized the importance of cooperating at this particular time.

Disposal of lunch and wrappers is not too significant for us. Everyone is held responsible for disposing of his wrappers in the large waste basket in the classroom. In the middle of the lunch period, one boy is delegated to remove the refuse to a can outside the building. Only once has Mr. Hunter had occasion to reprimand the students for an untidy condition due to wrappers or papers. For the next two days, all papers and wrappers were placed in their own pockets until they filed out of the room. The word spread rather rapidly.

6. *Do you have any problem with certain teachers who want to "get rid of troublesome students too soon and too often"? In other words, just what system of screening is used concerning referrals to this special program?*

We would have trouble with teachers who want to get rid of troublesome students too soon and too often if we did not have some concrete method of assigning youngsters to this program. I am the only one who sends students to Mr. Hunter and the social adjustment program. All teachers have to clear through the office with recommendations by them. I use my judgment in deciding whether a student should be disciplined otherwise or assigned to the program. Teachers do not send too many students when they know that every case is reviewed. We usually do not assign a student to social adjustment unless he has had repeated problems in that particular class. However, I have had occasion to assign students to this class when I have received referrals regarding classroom behavior on a particular boy from more than one teacher. This was a good indication that the boy needed additional help.

7. *Have you any unique approach and technique for handling the problems which you mention incidentally in your article; namely, smoking, fights, dirty pictures, truancies, and other related behavior problems?*

I doubt whether we have any unique approaches or techniques toward smoking, fights, dirty pictures, etc. Every one of them is handled as an individual case. We use parent contacts and conferences a great deal. Our educational Code in California prohibits the items mentioned. These are automatic suspensions which result in the parent's visit to the school. If the situation becomes unwieldy, other schools in this immediate area "transfer" students. I don't know whether this has any beneficial value, but it certainly clears the air for the "fringe" element of the student body who might be drawn in by the more troublesome pupil. Surprisingly enough, we seem to reach more than is apparent in the survey. We continually harass and badger the students with related behavior problems that you mentioned, for the purpose of keeping them loose and on their toes. We wish we had the answers.

8. *Is there any problem concerning key work that has been missed in the regular classroom while the boy is being held in the social adjustment class?*

This question has been asked in many different ways. There has been no problem. No boy is removed unless the teacher assumes the responsibility of providing the work to be covered in the regular class. The boy who is assigned to social adjustment is not excused from any work missed in class. The social adjustment teacher usually reviews the work, gives guidance, but is not held responsible for grading the completed work. Quite often, he does assume this responsibility, but merely as a courtesy to the classroom teacher.

## FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

A review and study of the referrals for the social adjustment program has disclosed a tendency of the students referred to be ones who have a reading problem. To establish a possible correlation of reading deficiency and social adjustment for the average "client," we have been testing all "applicants" for the program. Our test is primarily a reading exam and so far we have from the information obtained, a definite correlation between our social adjustment people and reading improvement needs. We have others, of course, but, interestingly enough, the students who are in our special reading classes seldom are referred to the program. Even though there is nothing conclusive as yet, we are starting to stress some phase of reading in the social adjustment room. Not only are the students required to do the necessary work for the period missed in regular class, but now are also required to take some extra work in reading. We believe it couldn't hurt anyone, even the good readers.

## ADJUSTMENT STUDENTS' EVALUATION

Students' evaluation of the program has been difficult to ascertain. Quite often it has been too personal an affair for a proper consideration. Surprisingly enough, most of the comments have indicated that the student has realized the significance of his previous actions in the classroom. Some of the youngsters who had been what we call the "fringe" element have improved considerably and very quickly. Perhaps a few of the comments would be in order. Of course, the comments were placed in a box when the teacher left the room. They were not signed and no attempt was made to determine who said what. Here are some typical comments.

Social adjustment helped me because, after being in for lunch and nutrition, I saw some of the so-called "big" men. I realized that I was one of them, but I didn't want to be like them. Social adjustment helped my grades very much. I found you don't have to show off and disturb classmates to get attention. I learned a lot more by listening in class and having my fun outside. Social adjustment helped me because I had time to study and work. That is why I think social adjustment helped me to be a better person.

Mr. Hunter helped me more than social adjustment did, but it did help my grades a little though.

I think it would be more worth while if it weren't so strict. As it is now, if you are tardy or you talk or anything, Mr. Hunter doesn't like it and you get more days which means you are dead. I would like it better if it weren't so rough. No one likes to get into it.

Social adjustment helped me a lot. I use to carry check slips and I would have to cooperate. Now it is a habit so that is what I think of social adjustment.

It is a good thing for it helped me get on the ball.

# Producing Better Lesson Plans

WILLIAM L. PHINNEY

**E**ARLY last September, Harry A. Beede, principal of Broad Meadows Junior High, Quincy, Massachusetts, asked the writer to work with the members of our faculty to see how we could best assure ourselves of having teachers who made and utilized superior lesson plans. The approach to the problem was to meet with small groups of teachers of specific subjects for our in-service education. This procedure was followed because of the feeling that even though good general principles of learning apply to all subjects, certain problems are akin to each subject area.

These small group meetings were preceded by a general faculty meeting where the project and proposed plan were discussed. By the conclusion of the meeting we had established the following basic premises: (1) Careful, systematic preparation of good lesson plans will help us to improve our teaching—and be of help to substitute teachers, too; (2) Lesson plans are very personal and what works best for one teacher may not be best for another; and (3) There are certain major characteristics of a good lesson plan-book which all teachers can utilize.

Next, we formulated a general definition of a lesson plan. The term lesson plan came from the earlier practice of planning a lesson that pupils were to recite during the recitation period the following day. In today's modern school, such day-by-day lessons, as separate, distinct learning periods, fail to satisfy the goals we seek. Long-term assignments, unit assignments, problem-solving, research, *etc.*, all connote a distinct change in philosophy regarding daily planning. A lesson plan is now looked upon as an organization of learning activities designed to help the teacher to help the pupils to progress along the road toward significant unit objectives which can be realized only over a longer period of time than one period.

At the completion of our eight small group meetings, a bulletin was distributed to all the teachers summarizing some of the better techniques practiced by most of the teachers in our building. They are as follows:

1. Lesson plans are kept in a loose-leaf notebook, so plans may be prepared at home and brought to school without bringing the plan-book home. (In case of the sudden illness of the regular teacher, the substitute teacher will have plans to use.)

2. The plan-book is kept in the middle drawer of the classroom desk.

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3. The teacher's program, supervisory duties, lunch times, and bell schedules are inserted in a pocket in the inside front cover of the plan-book.

4. In order to assist a substitute teacher, a list of "general instructions," location of materials, and names of reliable pupil leaders in each division are written on the first page of the plan-book.

5. Plans are made a week in advance—with space left for additions to be made daily.

6. Plans are written in ink. (Blank, lined sheets of paper seem to be more popular than mimeographed forms because of the limited space of the latter.)

7. Lists of ability groups within each division and the names of the group leaders are enclosed in a pocket on the back inside cover of the plan-book.

8. Mimeographed study-guides, unit plans, tests, *etc.*, to which reference may be made in the daily plans, are included in the plan-book or in a separate resource notebook.

9. Pupil study-guides or work-sheets seem to be very popular with the teachers. (They are not only helpful in providing for individual differences, but also make it easier for a substitute to complete the plans if the regular teacher is absent.)

Our meetings proved to be interesting, stimulating, and fruitful. Improved lesson planning and resultant improved teaching-learning situations have been in evidence.

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## Our Misused Home Rooms

JAY DECKER

ONE of our greatest opportunities to help students is being greatly overlooked by the majority of the classroom teachers. This is especially so on the junior and the senior high-school level where the home-room teacher is very much in evidence. Teachers who are classified as home-room teachers probably have the greatest student responsibility of any group in a school building.

The word "home room" implies that this room should be the focal point from which all school activities emerge. If this is so, then it is easy to see why the person who supervises this home room has such a great responsibility. Besides being the starting point from which a student emerges into an active school day, it is the one room where he should be able to feel very secure and confident. This confidence and security is brought about only if the teacher has created the right atmosphere in the room. This is where we have failed miserably, especially at the junior-senior high-school level.

During elementary school, a student or teacher is not usually confronted with the problems of a home room as we use the term in our junior-senior high schools. The elementary teacher is able to create an adequate atmosphere the first few days of school. The students become quickly adjusted because they remain with this one teacher for the whole day, with a minimum of interruptions. The problem of misusing the home room is not a pressing one to elementary teachers.

It seems that, when a teacher is involved in departmental teaching, the most damage is done. Teachers must remember that their responsibility does not become smaller even though time spent with a particular group does. It has been a misconception for many years among many subject matter and special area teachers on the junior-senior high-school level to regard the home room as merely a stopping point between classes. Too many teachers regard this home-room supervision time as a burden that must be shouldered along with our other professional duties.

Teachers must realize that the student needs to depend on the home room and home-room teacher just as he depends on his home and parents. If this is not the atmosphere created by the home-room teacher, then the student's progress is jeopardized and his scholastic progress will not be as great as it could be.

In our professional education, we have learned that the development of the whole child is important to society. We, as teachers, have taken it upon ourselves to help prepare these pupils for successful living in a democratic society; but we have somehow lost sight of this all-important objective recently. When we do actually enter the classroom, we usually

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became suddenly very subject matter conscious. This is perhaps quite logical because, as college students, we learned to think in terms of a specific field. It is only natural to want to emphasize subject matter that has been mastered. So we often try to divide the school day into subject matter areas exclusively, losing sight of the interrelatedness that must exist. This is where we have jeopardized the students, parents, and the future of our democracy.

#### A TYPICAL HOME-ROOM GUIDANCE PROGRAM

Most junior and senior high-school programs provide on an average of sixty to ninety minutes each day for home-room activities. This means that a home-room teacher is with his specific home-room group for such teacher responsibilities as attendance, announcements, study periods, class meetings, *etc.* It is a period of approximately five to seven hours a week when the teacher should not be concerned with his special subject that he teaches during the day. Instead, the students and the teacher should be using this very special time in which to become better acquainted.

The atmosphere should be created so that there is no doubt in the student's mind as to what he will be permitted to do in the home room. He should feel that he has an opportunity to go to his teacher with problems and questions, just as he would at home. The home room should actually serve as a substitute for the home environment during school hours. When administrators, parents, and teachers realize this, the home room will provide a very happy stopping point for students.

The home-room period is probably the best time to teach and practice the values of good citizenship. Scholastic achievement is not the only important objective of our educational systems. To most teachers, character traits that can be admired, are also objectives of great value. Such character traits as respect, courtesy, independence, initiative, *etc.* are necessary traits in a good and respected student body. As has been stated previously, these things are very important to teachers, but many of us fail when we have the opportunity to do something about it.

If we remember that each student is a completely different and complex individual, we are better able to see how the home room can be valuable in other situations. The home room is an ideal place for meeting the needs of the students. The slow or gifted pupil is often missed in the hurry-up routine of a normal school day. The home room is the place where they are made to feel that their problems are important too.

I believe that many of the disciplinary problems facing the schools would not be as great if the home-room time were used to teach good basic rules and regulations of society. Society expects us to prepare these youth for acceptable social living, but teachers can't succeed if they don't use all the available time wisely. We must constantly remind ourselves that an educated person is one that has been prepared for all phases of social living. If we as educators believe this, we can feel justly honored and privileged to use the time given to complete the task.



## Controlling a Class

RICHARD L. LOUGHLIN

SHAKESPEARE'S *The Tempest* offers appropriate quotations for opening and closing a bulletin on the stormy part of teaching—salvaging difficult, disturbed, or disorderly adolescents. As a reformed delinquent, St. Augustine advises: "Pray to God in the storm—but keep on rowing. Beware of despairing about yourself; you are commanded to put your trust in God and not in yourself." Disciplinary techniques are oil in troubled waters.

Good discipline creates conditions favorable to efficient learning. Its ultimate purpose is the maturity (acceptance of responsibility and self-control) of the learner. Since neither goal is probably ever fully reached in high school, considering the tensions and temptations of life, teachers must steel themselves against regular intervals of frustration and apparent failure. Fortitude is a noble virtue in teaching, as in other adventures. Perhaps a review of some of the things good disciplinarians do before, during, and after the lesson will help—especially beginning teachers.

### BEFORE THE LESSON

1. Because pupils—like adults—are first-impression prone, prepare for the first session and the first week with special care. Learn and record everything you can about your pupils (names, IQ's, records of school citizenship, etc.). The cumulative record cards are in the office. Early identification helps in fixing responsibility.

2. Mimeograph model lessons as guides, write detailed lesson plans geared to your group. Since monotony fosters disturbances, vary the type of lessons. Present the practical and vocational aspects of the language arts, first. Provide training in work-study skills, early. Bear in mind that, if the material is not exacting enough, your brighter pupils will become bored. On the other hand, if it is too abstract, the duller ones despair. For the latter, drill, repetition, and review are vital. Assign and carefully check homework to establish good work habits. Insist on neat papers.

3. We can train youngsters for democratic living only by enforcing laws, which Aristotle defined as "reason without desire." In and out of the classroom, rule by rules—not fear, threats, shame, anxiety, anger, assumptions of superiority, or hate. Charity dictates that you hate the offense, but continue to love the offender.

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## DURING THE LESSON

1. Be businesslike from the first second of the first session. Since youngsters try to take advantage of over-friendly and easygoing adults, keep your place and a poker face, without being unnatural. Seriousness can be friendly, and an infrequent smile pays off. The classroom is a workroom, basically.

2. Quickly check the physical conditions of the room (ventilation, lighting, cleanliness, seating, bulletin boards, and decorations).

3. Get attention before attempting instruction.

4. Speak softly and infrequently. Yelling, nagging, incessant talking, flippancy, and the regular repetition of instructions, questions, or answers insures dwindling attention, respect, and compliance. One way to avoid unnecessary repetitions of instructions is to duplicate them or write them on the board.

5. From the first day, establish and enforce, without deifying, routines. Lack of routines or disturbances of routines can breed trouble.

6. Don't give them time to get disorderly; put them to work at once, copying the assignment, vocabulary, or spelling lists, or some other type of board work. Conduct a five-minute written or oral quiz on the homework or on yesterday's lesson. The great preventive—and cure—for student disorder is *work*.

7. Quietly challenge any latecomer. If his excuse sounds improvised, warn him that his next lateness will be reported—and do it.

8. Discourage the use of the room pass, especially at the beginning of the period when the day's work is being motivated and instruction is being given. Urgent need, not whim, is the basis for issuing the room pass. Allow only one pupil at a time to leave the room. Curb pass grabbing by having a monitor keep a record (names, dates, and durations).

9. The first day, seat pupils alphabetically, except for deviates—pupils with epilepsy, cardiac trouble, or eye and ear defects. During the term, break up cliques by changing seats.

10. Allow only one student to approach your desk at a time. Crowds prevent you from keeping an "eagle eye" on the entire class.

11. Attune your vocabulary to the group, without descending to ridiculous depths. They expect you to keep your place in language, as well as in everything else. Shams, popularity seekers, and comics are immediately detected and exploited by pupils.

12. Without being an easy mark, trust pupils. If one claims he forgot to do the homework, for example, take his word for it, enter the zero, and tell him he has until tomorrow to make it up, without loss of credit.

13. Since good behavior and appropriate attire and posture seem to be inter-related, insist on proper dress and posture.

14. Aware that prevention is better than punishment, move about the room to make your presence felt everywhere, not just front and center.

15. Accentuate the positive. Without preaching or scolding, point out briefly the individual and group values of good school citizenship. Disturbers deny the group full instructional time. They are enemies of the pupils, not the teachers.

16. Let them live up to your good opinion of them by praising them, individually and as a group, for close attention, good attendance, good work—even honest effort. Youth crave attention and secretly want to admire adults. Help them to like their better selves. Provide purgatives for their hostilities.

17. Take a special interest in each of your "adopted" children. Inquire about their health after illnesses, send notes to them and to their parents about good work or special service.

18. Produce cooperation and additional effort and capitalize on individual interests and talents by providing optional or extra-credit assignments or by granting special privileges for exceptional work.

19. Reduce inattention and indifference by letting pupils know that their daily efforts (homework, compositions, quizzes, and classroom contributions) determine approximately two thirds of the final mark. Never allow a pupil to feel incapable of succeeding—to the bitter end—or he may seek other forms of recognition. On the other hand, never destroy the real value of marks—indicators of achievement—by giving marks in the upper eighties or nineties for good conduct or unavailing effort.

20. Use codes of behavior and other available materials for lessons on good conduct, such as our filmstrips on etiquette (one with a lesson plan) and composition topics: "Behavior on Public Vehicles," "Why Manners Are Manly," and "There Is Only One Time To Be Courteous—ALWAYS." Also use reviews of character-building motion pictures, television and radio programs, plays, books, operas, songs, and articles in magazines and newspapers.

21. Discourage calling out and chorus answers by saying, "I'm glad to see that all are interested, but in the future please raise your hand if you wish to recite."

22. Schedule frequent tests, quizzes, and notebook checks to show pupils their progress.

23. If a pupil reports his books or other equipment missing, spoil the fun by assuring him audibly that nobody will be dismissed at the end of the period until his property has been returned. It will be.

24. Bear in mind that even the worst pupils may be the best children their parents have. Assume that they just don't know any better and "tip them off" tactfully, in private.

25. If you feel a class is getting out of hand, try one or more of the following disciplinary techniques.

a. Change the type of activity, naturally. Introduce writing, silent reading, a test, or a lecture.

b. Keep your temper and your poise. Deviations are not personal affronts; maladjustments have long histories. If you show irritation or anger, you're entertainment. If you argue, you make your pupil your equal. If you use your hands, you'll not be able to use your head.

c. Don't commit yourself or challenge the "lunatic fringe" by making threats or promises.

d. Since good discipline seeks reclamation, not condemnation, never embarrass or shame a pupil or force apologies.

e. Get the ring leader; the others are sheep. However, avoid comparing the good with the bad. Never punish an entire class—except with a brief silent period, preceded by an explanation—if you cannot locate the offender or offenders.

f. Shun open clashes; the class may side with the disrupter. Give the class something to do and deal privately with the "affection starved" boy.

g. In a controlled but slightly louder voice, ask an offender to stand. Courteously query him on his inattention. The others will quiet down to hear. You may even get a promise of improvement from the culprit.

h. Should a smart aleck identify himself, show the class that you won't tolerate discourtesy or nonsense. Showing that you know the business—and mean business—has a sobering effect on all.

i. Never wait until a class is completely out of hand before doing something about it. Good discipline, everywhere, is good for everyone.

26. Starting with the first dismissal, you—not the bell or the pupils—dismiss the class in a quiet and systematic manner. Do not allow the pupils to get their clothing until one minute after the warning bell signals you to terminate work.

#### AFTER THE LESSON

1. In an unhurried conference, ask the offender to state your side of the case and to suggest *remedial* punishment. This shows the pupil that you want to approve, not disapprove.

2. Punishment should inspire good conduct and should be immediate, understood, and consistent within the group.

3. Help the offender grow into self-respecting citizenship by avoiding references to past errors, either in public or private.

4. If you have an incorrigible, keep a dossier. Being able to specify dates, types of disturbances, and kinds of punishments administered will help the principal immeasurably.

5. Encourage good manners and deportment everywhere: halls, auditorium, library, lunchroom, office, gymnasium, on the stairways, steps of the school, and subway platforms, as well as in your home room and classroom.

6. In all your actions, be guided by mental health principles: Good mental health is not achieved merely by the removal of obstacles. Good mental health is achieved when the needs of every individual are met for: (1) developing a sense of personal worth by providing opportunities for each person to experience the satisfaction of his needs for belonging, achieving success in some activities, developing meaningful personal goals and values; (2) developing good interpersonal relationships through experiencing the satisfactions of participating cooperatively with others and contributing to the achievement of group goals, gradually expanding the kinds of groups of which he can feel himself an integral part. Class groups should be so organized and conducted that pupils (a) have a feeling of belonging, (b) understand what their goals are, (c) have tasks in which they can succeed, (d) experience cooperative relations, (e) are challenged to find solutions to meaningful problems, (f) can receive support from the teacher and help when needed. Teachers should be persons who (a) can influence people without dominating them, (b) can arouse interest and maintain motivation without establishing fear, (c) can create a feeling of mutual confidence between teacher and pupil, (d) can bolster a child's self-confidence without making him "un-self-critical," (e) can understand and accept with tolerance the wide diversity of personalities, (f) can keep the "long view" and avoid becoming disturbed over daily frustrations, and (g) have a high degree of personal integrity and interest in other people.

7. Realize how much good a single teacher—you—can do. "Education for Life," *Reader's Digest*, May 1953, reporting on a slum research project, concludes as follows: "Why was it that these boys, now men, who lived in a breeding place of crime, had such a surprisingly good record? The researchers were continually told: 'Well, there was a teacher . . .' They pressed further, and they found that in seventy-five per cent of the cases (of 180) it was the same woman. The researchers went to this teacher, now living in a home for retired teachers. How had she exerted this remarkable influence over a group of slum children? Could she give them any reason why these boys should have remembered her? 'No,' she said. No, she really couldn't. And then, thinking back over the years, she said musingly, more to herself than to her questioners: 'I loved those boys . . .'"

8. Finally, look upon your students as Miranda looked upon the shipwrecked company in *The Tempest*:

O, wonder!

How many goodly creatures are there here!

How beauteous mankind is! O brave new world,

That has such people in it! (V,i)

# What Should We Teach About Communism?

DAVID E. WEINGAST

I HAD considered calling this article "Why Should We Teach About Communism?" instead of "What Should We Teach About Communism?" But the "why," I felt, had already been taken care of. After all, the American Bar Association, the American Legion, the President of the United States—and his three predecessors—have all declared themselves firmly on this question. The National Council for the Social Studies has also pressed the point that every high-school graduate must be familiar with the basic facts of communism. Knowledge about communism, they have all agreed, is indispensable to political literacy in our generation.

This adds up to a convincing endorsement of the idea. Yet, despite resolutions and pronouncements by distinguished authorities, there is reason to believe that the young citizens of America—those still in school and those recently graduated—have only a meagre awareness of the meaning of communism. Why should our youth have systematic, in-school instruction on communism? Let's look briefly at some reasons:

1. We can remain ignorant of communism only at great peril. Of all the problems that plague our government, the most critical involves our relations with the communist regimes. On this issue hangs the fate of our democracy and the choice of war or peace for the world.

2. Communism is not a "learning package," like the society of old Babylonia or present-day Mexico, to be fitted into an appropriate educational slot and studied at a convenient time. Communist society differs from all others because it is the declared enemy of democracy. The Soviet Union is aggressively imperialistic, with agents and local parties engaged in all countries. Moscow is the nerve center of a world-girdling, disciplined organization. The communists have established by word and deed that they will rule the earth if they can. The subject, therefore, has a unique life-and-death urgency for the American people.

3. Soviet supporters in the United States are working zealously to advance communist aims. They are an arm of Communist Russia inside our own country. No other government has a comparable means for subverting our nation.

4. Since World War II the communist empire has grown in size, in power, and in potential at a rapid rate. The Soviet Union has proved itself the master of intricate scientific and technological problems. It is a power complex with awesome reserves of strength. Slowly the American people have sensed that Russia must no longer be regarded as an oversized sloth.

5. We have learned, with embarrassment and chagrin, that the Russians know more about us than we do about them. We suspect they are not only seeking knowledge for its own sake, but they are also following calculated political policy that has predetermined ends. They spend generously to study the

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scientific accomplishments of Americans. Until recently we did not bother to read what Russians were reporting in scientific and technological fields. Few of us troubled to learn Russian. We cloaked our ignorance with indifference.

6. The communist threat to the free world has changed the lives of all Americans—our nation has moved steadily toward semi-readiness for war; our youth accept military service as an indispensable part of their post-school life; the nation has made costly foreign-aid commitments designed to support free governments everywhere; American military research and technology have been stepped up; our people have shouldered prodigious tax burdens to make possible this program for survival in a world we share with communism.

7. Communism—and our relations with communist regimes—will continue to be front-page news for an unpredictable future. Our students will hear about communism on radio, television, and street corner. The question, then, is not whether they'll find out about communism. Nobody who is alive can avoid it. The question, rather, is whether the schools will equip their students to understand, to interpret, and to evaluate events that will burst on the world in the years ahead.

### WHAT TO TEACH

These reasons make the study of communism an urgent, unavoidable part of American education. "But," say principal, teacher, school board, and superintendent, "granting the importance of the study, where do you add it to a curriculum already groaning with content? What gets pushed out to make room for the study of communism?" The question is well taken. Pressure to add this or that subject to the curriculum is constant and inevitable. Special-interest groups continually push for the inclusion of their particular content in the program of studies.

Administrators can only judge each case on its merits. By the test of compelling national need, the study of communism qualifies for a part in the schools' offerings. Any subject so prominently involved with the nation's survival must come within the school program. Once this fact has been established, the question of what to teach about communism may be considered.

Communism being an abstract concept, it is not easy to put across; but, like many other abstract ideas, it can be made teachable. It can be invested with personal, dramatic, and narrative qualities that give reality and meaning. Successful teachers have always known that theoretical content must be made concrete and vivid for young minds. Youth can assimilate much theory if it is presented this way.

The question of where to include the study of communism depends on individual factors. School systems differ, and schools within a system vary greatly. There can be no general prescription as to where the subject should be taught. Some obvious places are United States history, problems of American democracy, international relations, economics, and current affairs. But there are lots of others. The aim should be to reach every student during his high-school career.

The amount of detail, time allotments, and grade placement depend on conditions inside the school. But certain basic content must be provided if students are to see the meaning of communism. It must be presented in sufficient detail and richness so that it passes from the



realm of the abstract to the concrete. Anything less means that the topic is disposed of in generalizations that lack substance. Almost any student, asked his opinion of communism, will call it "evil," "tyrannical," "dictatorial"; but, pressed for details, the student often goes blank. Experienced teachers know that a couple of adjectives often conceal vast ignorance. Among the topics basic to an understanding of communism are the following:

1. The recent history of the Soviet Union. The background of Czarism and the conditions that touched off the Russian revolutions.
2. Elementary principles of socialism. Conditions that gave rise to socialism. Karl Marx and other socialist theoreticians.
3. Basic ideas of communism.
4. How communism differs from socialism.
5. Russia today. Elements of geography, economics, culture.
6. The state of liberty in the Soviet Union.
7. How communism differs from democracy.
8. The world communist parties and the Soviet matrix. Communism as an international force.
9. Communist propaganda—aims and content. The communist propaganda machine in operation.
10. The satellites of the Soviet Union. The myth of the "People's Democracies."
11. Communists in the United States. Party members and fellow travelers. The communist front.
12. The Cold War—continuing struggle between communism and democracy. Prospects for resolving the conflict.

When the will exists to fit this content into the program of studies, the rest is easy. Trained social-studies teachers have the competence to do right by the subject. Every teacher knows how to build his fund of knowledge if he wants to.

The literature on communism is enormous and growing. Two recent books that no teacher should miss are J. Edgar Hoover's *Masters of Deceit* and John Gunther's *Inside Soviet Russia Today*. Valuable books that reveal the workings of the Communist Party, as seen by ex-communists, include Whitaker Chambers' *Witness* and Howard Fast's *The Naked God*. The Fund for the Republic's *Bibliography on the Communist Problem in the United States* is important for any reader who wants to dig into the subject. *Social Education* for April 1958 contains many useful suggestions for classroom techniques and materials.

The daily newspaper, radio, television, and magazines offer countless opportunities for vivifying ideas on this theme. Students who can visit UN have the advantage of observing communism's spokesmen in action. Resourceful teachers know other ways to give reality to a topic. Few areas in the social studies program have greater potential for stimulating high-level classroom study.

Teachers and administrators who avoid the subject because it is controversial are depriving their students of information they need for effective citizenship. This is not playing it safe. On the contrary, it is courting disaster for our nation. The lesson of Sputnik is written high in the heavens. American school people must catch on before it is too late.



# Mathematical Analysis

TOM HILL

RECENT outcries for more mathematics and science courses, often bordering on hysteria, have no place in critical thinking. But, disregarding developments of the past year, the applications of mathematics to the technological age in which we live have become so extensive and intensive as to make the mathematical education of our young people a matter of greater concern than ever before.

## WHAT NEW APPLICATIONS?

Mathematics has always been of prime importance to the engineer and to the physical scientist; but today it is becoming increasingly important in such fields as biology, economics, psychology, sociology, and statistics. Entirely new fields in mathematics are opening up in industry, business, and government. A few examples may be illuminating.

In industry today the problem of quality control, or the application of mathematical methods to problems of establishing and maintaining specified levels of quality of mass-produced articles, is such a great one that the American Society for Quality Control has been established and is flourishing. In the field of psychology, the Psychometric Society reflects the importance of mathematics in such areas as theory of test construction, psychological factor theory, learning theory, psychophysics, and scaling of psychological phenomena. Turning to yet another field of study, one economist has said that "the relation between mathematics and economics may someday resemble that between mathematics and physics." In this field, also, the Econometric Society has been established. These are only a few of scores of illustrations that could be given.

## MODERN MATHEMATICS

The new developments in mathematics have caused mathematicians to take a new look at the structure of their subject. This has resulted in what, for lack of a better term, has been called "modern mathematics." It includes such concepts as theory of sets, symbolic logic, and topology—ideas which ten years ago a mathematics major in college might never have encountered. And yet, such is the great importance attached to these new ideas that almost every issue of the *Mathematics Teacher* includes several articles by leading educators and mathematicians urging revision of the secondary-school curriculum to provide for some development of them, of this new way of approaching mathematics as a study of structure, not of manipulation.

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### WHY MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS?

The offering of mathematical analysis in the Oklahoma City Public Schools, beginning with the school year 1958-59, is intended to serve two general purposes:

1. It will answer a demand for a course in mathematics for able and interested students capable of going beyond the mathematics which has been offered previously. (It might be noted here that a plea for the introduction of calculus to the secondary-school curriculum was sounded as early as 1926 in the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics Yearbook of that year.)

2. Since the course is new and flexible, it can serve as a vehicle for introduction of some of the new concepts and the new approaches to the study of mathematics. (Perhaps experience here will help later in making desirable revisions in the entire mathematics program.)

### WHAT IS MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS?

So far as traditional college courses are concerned, mathematical analysis will include college algebra, topics from analytic geometry, and an introduction to calculus. It is in effect then an "integrated" course, an innovation finding its way into more and more college programs, including the University of Oklahoma and Oklahoma State University.

Because of the differences in freshman mathematics courses at various colleges and universities, it is not possible to say exactly what mastery of the material in this course will mean for the student when he enters college. Attempts will be made to work closely with the University of Oklahoma and Oklahoma State University so that students planning to attend one of those schools will have a definite idea of the way in which mathematical analysis is related to the freshman program. As for other schools, if the student plans to attend a college offering only the traditional sequence of college algebra, analytic geometry, and calculus, he should certainly be able to start with analytic geometry and quite possibly with calculus. The student should be advised to consult the college of his choice concerning this matter. A descriptive summary of the course will be given to each student to be used if his college desires clarification.

### WHO SHOULD ENROLL?

The very nature of this course presupposes an enrollment of students with marked ability and interest in mathematics; thus, enrollees should be carefully selected. While it is a distinct advantage for capable students to take this sort of course in high school, slower students should understand that it is to their interest to get another year of mathematical experience before attempting work at this level. No student should be enrolled who has not completed two years of algebra and one year of geometry. Also, every student should either have completed a semester of trigonometry or be enrolled in trigonometry simultaneously with the first semester of mathematical analysis.

### HOW THE COURSE WILL BE OFFERED

During the school year 1958-59, mathematical analysis will be offered by television in all secondary schools of Oklahoma City. This will promote some uniformity in the initial stages of our revision of the mathematics curriculum. It is not expected that a classroom teacher be assigned to the class. Instead, the course will be offered as an "honors" course with students working individually, with each other, and periodically with the television teacher. This should provide a splendid opportunity for independent study and research. The students enrolled in mathematical analysis should benefit greatly from this opportunity.

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### AASA REPORTS HALF OF THE NATION'S SCHOOL DISTRICTS NEED REORGANIZATION

Not spineless kids or soft teachers but little red schoolhouses and too small school districts—that is the big trouble with American education, according to the AASA Commission on School District Reorganization. By the commission's standards, over half the nation's school districts are too small to give students a well-rounded program.

In its 323-page report, *School District Organization*, published in July, the commission says a district should have at least 40 teachers and 1200 students in grades 1-12. Against this recommendation stands the current picture:

Only about one district in 8 is large enough to employ as many as 40 teachers.

Less than half of the nation's school districts operate schools for more than 50 students.

More than half of all school districts operate elementary schools only. These districts overlap, in terms of financial support and administration, with districts operating high schools only.

About one district in 7 operates no schools at all, but sends its students to neighboring districts on a tuition basis.

Of the 23,746 public high schools in the country now, about 13,100 enroll less than 200 students; just over 7,100 enroll less than 100; and about 2,700 enroll less than 50.

Schools in these districts—especially the small high schools—cannot have the teachers and facilities to do more than supply course offerings. Good college entrance programs, including science courses, and vocational programs go by the board.

Merely getting school district reorganization under way is one of the biggest problems the states face, the commission says. But in the last 20 years there has been much progress—from 127,530 districts in 1932 to 59,270 in 1955. State legislation is always needed to initiate reorganization. This legislation needs to be permissive enough to allow for local problems and have enough requirements to insure that reorganization will go through.

The commission warns: "Social district reorganization is not an economy measure in the sense of reducing school expenditures. The purpose of reorganization is to get more and better education per dollar spent."

Copies of *School District Organization* may be purchased from AASA at \$5.00 each, with quantity discounts.

# New Jersey Junior High Schools Question Emphasis on Departmentalization

HARRY T. GUMAER

ONE of the original purposes of the junior high school was to make more subject departmentalization possible at earlier grade levels. A majority of junior high-school principals in New Jersey question the desirability of this goal and are concerned that junior high-school teachers be better prepared to handle multiple-period courses which might minimize subject departmentalization. This situation was revealed in answers to questionnaires in 1955 by 83 per cent of the New Jersey junior high-school principals and a sample of teachers of that level, and by a further sample of principals interviewed in 1957. Studies in other states have revealed a similar pattern.

The data, set forth in an unpublished doctoral study,<sup>1</sup> indicated that approximately one third of New Jersey's junior high schools were offering multiple-period courses of the core, integrated, or correlated type. All of the principals and most of the teachers involved believed that these courses were operating satisfactorily. The most frequent type of course was a combination of social studies and English under one teacher, particularly in the seventh grade. Very few of these courses could be classified as "core" under most generally accepted definitions.

There appeared to be a tendency toward having little departmentalization in the seventh grade, more in the eighth, and rather complete departmentalization in the ninth. This is in accord with tendencies throughout the United States as shown in the literature of recent years.

The most common purpose of multiple-period courses seemed to be better articulation between elementary and secondary levels through an easier transition for pupils in going from the self-contained classroom of the sixth grade to the more departmentalized junior high school. In a majority of multiple-period courses, better guidance and opportunity for more integration of subject matter were important purposes. Meeting the needs of adolescents not dealt with in traditional subject areas was also mentioned as a purpose.

Although approximately one third of the junior high schools in the state had recognized department heads, and many other principals wished that they had them, the reasons given for having or wanting department heads were almost entirely administrative in nature, and did not appear to be related primarily to a philosophy of departmentalization. The

<sup>1</sup>Harry T. Gumaer, "Some Proposals for Curriculum Improvement in the Junior High Schools of New Jersey" (unpublished doctoral study, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1958).

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senior high-school department heads in the state do not generally influence or control the junior high-school program directly or overtly. However, the senior high school as an institution would appear to have great influence on the junior high school indirectly and informally, through association and tradition.

Two thirds of the principals and one third of the teachers in the survey recorded themselves as opposed to complete departmentalization in the junior high school. Both the questionnaires and the interviews indicated that the greatest single difficulty which had stood in the way of change from departmentalization was the fact that teachers were not adequately prepared for the new program. Closely allied with this difficulty were these: difficulty in getting teachers certified, lack of time for teachers to plan, teachers not approving of changes, and too great a teacher turnover in a school. Official opposition to change—from boards of education, the senior high school, and the colleges—was considered by most respondents as less important than the teacher problem.

Some principals indicated their personal opposition to change from departmentalization. A few, from favored communities which claim to send an extremely high proportion of youth to college, stated that they believed their communities would not accept the core idea but would wish to emphasize the difficult "academic" subjects which they believed would prepare students for college entrance with greater certainty. Some principals indicated that they did not feel secure in working with a core or integrated program and, therefore, had not given leadership in this direction.

Suggestions made by principals for overcoming the difficulties of teacher preparation, attitude, and certification emphasized greater teacher involvement in the process of curriculum change, and the re-evaluation of teacher certification requirements. Other suggestions included employing more teachers with an elementary teaching background and rearranging the school organization so as to de-emphasize departmentalized thinking.

In summary, these needs appeared to stand out with regard to junior high-school curriculum development in New Jersey:

1. A need for continued, positive leadership in encouraging junior high schools to join the retreat from departmentalization which appears to be nation-wide and for which many New Jersey principals and teachers show a good deal of readiness.

2. A need for junior high-school principals and teachers to be better informed on the process of curriculum development, particularly in understanding the relationship of multiple-period courses to the goals of the junior high school.

3. A need for changes in teacher preparation and certification requirements, along with a clarification of existing regulations, so that schools desiring to establish multiple-period programs may be adequately staffed. With regard to the last mentioned need—certification changes—the study reached these conclusions:

(a) The program of teacher education for the junior high-school level should include theory and practice in teaching in a multiple-period program. Too many teachers trained for secondary schools have no real idea of the purposes of an integrated, correlated, or core-type curriculum; nor have they ever sat in such a course as a student. Many have very great fears about it and are prepared to agree with those experienced teachers who say it "can't be done." One answer is for the teacher training institutions themselves to teach some courses by the very methods they advocate. Junior high-school teacher preparation should also emphasize heavily a more intensive and extensive study of the psychology of the early adolescent. Teachers who understand why adolescents behave the way they do and how children learn are more likely to see the value of the multiple-period program.

(b) Certification requirements for the junior high-school teacher should be made very broad and very flexible. A number of principals explain their failure to develop multiple-period courses on the grounds that they can neither find teachers who are certificated to teach such courses nor can they secure certification for capable teachers who are already on the staff. Department of education officials in effect indicate that this problem is surmountable under existing regulations concerning approved experimental courses. The probability here is that most principals hesitate to go through the long process often necessary to secure special approval of experimental course outlines and special certification for teachers.

Whether the problem is real or imagined, or both, the introduction of integrated courses should not further be delayed for reason of lack of properly certified teachers, nor should schools be denied the most effective possible use of the staff in setting up school schedules, particularly in these days of a shortage of highly effective teachers.

It is not the purpose here to spell out a particular set of desirable certification requirements. Certainly it must be made easier for a teacher to secure certification in somewhat allied subjects such as social studies and English, or mathematics and science. General junior high-school certification should be strongly considered, with the local school district given the right to determine assignment within the school on the basis of the teacher's abilities and interests. Such local certification might have to be justified in writing to the state department of education, to prevent abuse of the plan.

The study indicated the apparent need for further research in these areas.

1. There is a need for more research which indicates the values of multiple-period courses of the integrated, correlated, or core type at the junior high-school level as contrasted with the departmental plan.

2. There is a need for research to establish whether the integrated program functions equally satisfactorily with high ability, low ability, average, or heterogeneous classes.

3. There is a need for research on the effectiveness of specific types of administrative organization which have replaced or modified the department head arrangement.

Since the completion of the study, the age of the Sputniks has brought many proposals for a more difficult academic curriculum for American schools. Whether this new factor will alter or enhance the findings of the study remains to be seen.

## A Follow-up Study by Junior High School Students

EDWARD R. CUONY

GROUP guidance is an important function of any junior high-school program. The characteristics of the age group, usually found in these grades, indicate that they are very conscious of their peer group and need the security and acceptance of their age mates. To make our group guidance meaningful and give it status, we scheduled regular class periods for our students. The counselors were encouraged to provide a permissive attitude in the group discussions. In the conduct of our group guidance classes, we kept in mind that students must have a part in the planning of the activities and that the topics and projects chosen must be real and of importance to students.

Because of the student-centered approach and the permissive atmosphere in the classes, the students felt free to discuss their problems. We found that one of their major concerns was that of adjusting to the senior high school and being successful there. The counselors discussed the follow-up technique. Our students were very interested and they suggested that a series of questions be forwarded to the tenth-grade students in the senior high school. This was the class which had been promoted from the junior high school the previous June.

Students were encouraged to propose questions they would like to ask of senior high-school students who had recently left the junior high school. These questions were collected from all the eighth-grade student groups. We feel that the permissive atmosphere created by the counselors encouraged questions and discussion.

The faculty also became interested in the project. We encouraged the teachers to submit questions for the student sponsored questionnaire. It is interesting to note that the questions submitted by the staff did not differ greatly from those suggested by the students.

A committee of the counselors and students combined the various questions and reworded some, but did not change the content or meaning. These questions were developed into a questionnaire. These questionnaires were forwarded to the tenth-grade students who were asked to complete questionnaires anonymously. We feel quite certain the responses reflect a true feeling on the part of our former students.

We followed the technique as described by Hoppock<sup>1</sup> with slight adaptation. The students were extremely interested in the project and

<sup>1</sup>Robert Hoppock. *Occupational Information*. New York: McGraw-Hill. 1957.

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were anxious to secure the returns. The faculty was also interested in securing the returns. We received 147 returns out of a possible 182 respondents. Our counselors and students tabulated the results which are noted below. The results are noted in percentage of total responses.

### JHS FOLLOW-UP OF TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS IN SHS

	(In per cent)	
	Yes	No
1. Are you satisfied with your preparation for entrance into senior high school?	73	27
2. Were there any courses not offered in the junior high school that you would have desired before entering the senior high school?	34	66
3. Do you feel that your training in how to use the library and how to find materials was adequate?	78	22
4. Did you have any difficulty adjusting to the senior high school, scholastically?	29	71
5. Since leaving the junior high school, have you found any courses which repeat material you had in courses here?	60	40
6. On the average, do you think the classwork should have been made more difficult?	23	77
7. Did you have any difficulty adjusting to the senior high school, personally or socially?	10	90
8. Do you feel that participation in junior high-school activities helped you in adjusting to the senior high school?	72	28
9. Do you feel that the teachers should have been more strict with their assignments?	37	63
10. Did you receive adequate information on the selection of courses offered in the senior high school?	81	19
11. Do you feel that more should be done to make the adjustment between junior high school and senior high school an easier one?	44	56
12. As a senior high-school student, what advice would you give to junior high-school students?		

The responses to question No. 12 appeared to fall in several distinct categories. The counselors in tabulating these responses listed them under six (6) general headings noted below.

### ADVICE FROM TENTH-GRADE STUDENTS

#### 1. HOMEWORK

- a. Take it more seriously
- b. Do it daily
- c. More homework should be given
- d. Teachers should be more firm about handing in assignments
- e. Be prepared for larger amounts of homework

## 2. *STUDY HABITS*

- a. Work and study harder
- b. Learn and practice good study habits
- c. Don't waste time
- d. Work and study to learn, not just to pass

## 3. *IN CLASSES*

- a. Learn all you can daily in each class
- b. Pay close attention in class, especially to what the teachers say
- c. Take notes in class
- d. Get help immediately if you don't understand—don't put it off

## 4. *ENTRANCE INTO SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL*

- a. Have a social initiation
- b. Enter with the idea that you can do the work and stick to it
- c. Enter with the idea that it is a place for work not just a BALL
- d. Respect upper classmen
- e. Definitely decide on your major before entering senior high school
- f. Enter into a variety of activities in the junior and the senior high schools
- g. Be yourself—don't put on an act

## 5. *GRADES*

- a. Keep your marks up
- b. You will find it harder to get high (good) marks in senior high school

## 6. *GENERAL ADVICE*

- a. Learn to get along with teachers and classmates
- b. Take all the mathematics and science possible
- c. Teachers should be more strict
- d. Do more reading
- e. Plan and think ahead about your future
- f. Have one year of science in each seventh and eighth grade
- g. Students should have and should take more responsibility
- h. Get a good background in the basic courses
- i. Pick the courses best suited for your needs, not just the easy ones
- j. Classwork should be made harder
- k. Be more strict on assignments and less strict on students' actions

The group guidance classes had many lively and interesting discussions regarding the results. The counselors, while they made no objective evaluation, felt that the meetings which were devoted to this project were most meaningful to the students.

A committee of the faculty also made an analysis of the results. The results and analysis were presented to the entire faculty and resulted in an interesting faculty meeting.

The responses to the first four (4) questions seem to indicate that our students are well prepared to enter the senior high school. About three fourths of the respondents were satisfied with their preparation in the junior high school. About one third of the respondents would have desired some courses not offered in the junior high school. In our next follow-up plan, we intend to determine what some of these desired courses

are. About three fourths of the respondents were satisfied with their preparation in library skills and had no difficulty in senior high school, scholastically.

The majority of students found courses in the senior high school that repeated material of courses in the junior high school. There is a possibility that there is some repetition of course content. It is conceivable that students and teachers might disagree on what is being repeated. The senior high-school teachers might repeat some materials for emphasis, review, or because they felt that the materials had not been well learned. There is also a distinct possibility that there is repetition in course content. This is one of the possibilities that we are looking at very critically. As a result of this, the faculties of the senior and the junior high schools are holding joint departmental meetings to scrutinize and reorganize the courses of study in each of the subject areas. Interest in this development has been infectious and representatives of the elementary grades are also attending these meetings. One of the concomitant outcomes of this follow-up study is that the faculties of the various Geneva schools are looking critically at the curriculum. Since curriculum study should be a careful process, we are proceeding slowly. Whether any revision results or not, it is encouraging that teachers are reviewing the curriculum.

In response to question No. 6, about three fourths of the respondents thought that classwork in the junior high school should not be made more difficult. Only about one third of the respondents felt that the junior high-school teachers should have been more firm with assignments. Some of the comments, however, indicated a desire for more firmness on the part of the junior high-school teachers with reference to assignments. This led to a desire on the part of the faculty committee to make a survey of student homework habits. The faculty devoted some time to reviewing their own homework practices. A parents' meeting was held to discuss the homework situation. This latter meeting was very well attended.

The majority of students had no difficulty in personal or social adjustment to the senior high school. They also felt that participation in junior high-school activities helps in this adjustment.

With reference to guidance, we are evidently providing sufficient information on the course offerings in the senior high school. There is an indication that we should provide a more meaningful orientation to the senior high school. The administration and guidance personnel are developing a program which we hope will alleviate the feeling among almost one half of the graduates that more could be done to make the adjustment between the junior high school and the senior high school an easier one.

The follow-up project was of great interest and value to the students and the faculty. There is every reason to believe that the students this year will be just as interested and will gain as much as they have this past year by participating in this activity.

## Providing Thrust for Talented Junior High School Youth

M. DALE BAUGHMAN

**M**ORE than 200 junior high schools and upper elementary grade schools hold memberships in the Junior High-School Association of Illinois. One of the largest and most active of its kind, this association sponsors annually (1) a series of fall regional conferences at which total attendance usually exceeds 500; (2) a major research project which is published; (3) a minor study, the results of which appear in the quarterly newsletter of the association, and (4) a spring conference on the University of Illinois campus which regularly draws an attendance of around 500. The last named activity is conducted by the University of Illinois Division of University Extension and the College of Education in cooperation with the Junior High-School Association.

Last April 11 approximately 550 junior high-school teachers, principals, board members, college teachers and specialists, and interested laymen attended the opening banquet of the two-day spring conference. The majority remained to participate in discussion groups organized to provide thrust to the planning for talented junior high-school youth. The discussion groups continued on Saturday and the conference culminated with a Saturday noon luncheon.

Leadership teams, composed of chairmen, recorders, and consultants were selected from the ranks of classroom teachers, guidance workers, junior high-school principals, superintendents, personnel of the State Department of Education, and specialists in state non-school projects dealing with youth development. The great number of participants, the general atmosphere, and the formal post-conference appraisal technique assured us that the conference was highly successful and reassured us that the junior high-school workers in Illinois are on the march.

Principal addresses were given by Professor A. Harry Passow, Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of Experimentation, Teachers College, Columbia University; Professor Ernest Newland, University of Illinois, College of Education; and Professor Robert F. DeHaan, Chairman of the Department of Psychology, Hope College, Holland, Michigan. In his banquet speech opening the conference, Dr. Passow discussed the general nature of a program for gifted pupils, the goals of such a program, problems in the identification of the gifted, curriculum content, administration adapta-

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tions, guidance techniques, teachers for the gifted, and, finally, community relationships and resources for the gifted.

Professor Newland criticized teachers who "dare" gifted children to "force their way through the educational concrete." He said, "Educators must seek out talented youngsters in early school years rather than just sit back and wait to regard as superior only those who have managed somehow or other to make their superiority grossly apparent."

At the Saturday luncheon closing speech, Professor DeHaan pointed out the responsibility of the community as a whole in educating the gifted. He went on to say that the community must not put the entire burden of identifying and guiding future scientists and cultural leaders solely upon the school systems. He then outlined a program for enlisting the aid of educated laymen in the community.

Late Friday evening and early Saturday morning sessions were devoted to group discussions on six topics. Summaries of the discussions as reported by group recorders and edited by the consultant appear below:

*Should the school devote extra time, effort, and resources to the development of talent or will talent eventually come out?*

From the educator's point of view the answer is an affirmative one. Probably we would get a negative one from taxpayers. A program for the gifted child is worth while. Such programs are saving some people for college careers who otherwise might not have gone on. It is best not to leave the development of talent to accident, but all that is possible should be done to develop high achievers. If there is any group that we can teach well, it is the group composed of gifted children. Major ideas brought out in the discussions were the following: (1) Children are gifted in different things. All children are gifted to some degree. They all need to be provided for. (2) We must try to help the student identify his potentialities. This should be done early, even before junior high school, although much remains to be done at that level. (3) Highly qualified teachers are a must for gifted students.

*What factors should be considered in the problem of identifying talented youth?*

Here the group listed (1) abstract thinking ability, (2) creativity, (3) critical thinking, (4) intelligence, and (5) the ability to achieve well in at least one area of endeavor. It was pointed out, however, that just because a child did not qualify under the last named stipulation, he is not necessarily untalented. In the identification of aptitudes consideration must be given to:

1. Tests of ability
2. Interests and hobbies
3. Leisure time activities
4. Books read
5. Vocabulary used
6. Questions asked
7. Achievement
8. Choice of occupation
9. Verbalization
10. Quickness of thought
11. Observations by (a) teachers,  
(b) parents, (c) students, and  
(d) others

Certain factors related to achievement were listed: (1) interest and sustained powers of concentration, (2) personality and emotional stability, and (3) motivation—self and extrinsic. The group concluded that talented youth should be identified as soon as possible, preferably before twelve years of age. They agreed further that an organized plan of child study within each school is needed to "dig out" the talent.

*What are some productive ways of enriching the curriculum for talented youth?*

In getting under way, each of the three groups took time to define the terms: enrich, curriculum, and talented youth.

A. Principles upon which each group was in agreement. They were: (1) The instruction of junior high-school students presents many problems peculiar to that age group. (2) No specific formula will satisfy all the needs of all students in all situations. (3) A program for the talented can be successful only if it is actively supported by the school personnel, the parents, and the community. It was suggested that one of the primary duties of the school is to inform the parents of the need for a special program and of the possible ways of attempting a solution of the problem. (4) The first step is a precise definition of terms and the establishment of immediate and final objectives.

There were those who seemed to feel that the problem of educating the talented had been magnified out of proportion to its real significance. There were others who were impatient for a complete blueprint of a program which could be placed in operation at once. However, most of those present, while recognizing the fact that there should be a minimum of delay, seemed to feel that radical or ill-considered changes in the curriculum are likely to be of greater harm than benefit.

As might be expected, the question of acceleration *versus* enrichment was discussed at some length. In this connection the statement was made that the term "enrichment" has been used so loosely that it has become meaningless. It was stated that it would be more accurate to say that the course of studies and activities should be made appropriate to the interests and needs of the student. Procedures suggested as being especially valuable in work with superior students were:

1. Forming of classes, clubs, and activities centered about the *interests* of the students.
2. Giving students ready access to all types of good books—fiction, biography, travel, history, and general reference. (Suggestions as to how this could be accomplished included a library-study hall, library visitation by entire classes, library assignments, and exhibitions tending to stimulate interest in reading. It would seem that the method is not important so long as there is created an atmosphere wherein the student learns to use and enjoy good books.)
3. Providing, in the eighth grade, algebra, science, and advanced English classes which would carry full credit in senior high school.

In conclusion it seems worth while to repeat a statement of one of the consultants. "If a teacher can tell me specifically what he is doing to

supplement the work of each individual pupil, I can be reasonably sure that he is carrying out a satisfactory enrichment program."

B. Methods of improving instruction for the talented youth in a homogeneous grouping appear below:

1. Test first to find out individual capacity and achievement
2. Accelerate on an individual level
3. Aid students to develop scientific attitude and approach
4. Gear research papers toward individual interests
5. Stress factual information by (a) creating good basic background, and (b) working for more intensive research on factual materials
6. Introduce and work toward advancing reading skills by (a) developing better eye contact, (b) developing ability to skim, and (c) increasing reading speed
7. Develop methodology of research
8. Improve study skills, habits, and organization through (a) teaching proper note taking, (b) teaching proper research organization, (c) teaching ability to search out *important* facts, and (d) teaching proper use of time
9. Broaden the curriculum, stressing practical application of knowledge
10. Aid the students in the methods of both written and spoken communication.

C. Methods of improving instruction for the talented youth in a heterogeneous grouping are listed below:

1. Stress again independent learning situations
2. Take the opportunity of doing special work such as taking field trips, visiting museums, *etc.*, thereby pursuing the interests of the students
3. Form clubs, special work groups, *etc.*
4. Use varied teaching techniques: (a) contract system (that is, having A,B,C contracts, which the student may fulfill in accordance with individual ability), (b) project work for extra credit and (c) class groupings based on abilities and achievements
5. Eliminate unnecessary work drills
6. Orient the group to class situations
7. Avoid fixed lesson plans
8. Teach the student to evaluate what he has learned (Self-evaluation)
9. Emphasize the value of learning to listen as well as report
10. Stress, to the student, that he must continue looking for quality and not be bound by quantity
11. Explain the reasoning behind that which is introduced in the class as necessary work to fulfill and learn
12. Teach social adjustment for the talented youth
13. Challenge the student to continue reading for improvement in skills, knowledge, *etc.*, making him conscious of his need for personal growth and cultural improvement

D. Conclusions reached:

1. Every community can provide aids from home resources
2. Talented youth need extracurricular helps and projects
3. Acceleration does not mean "piling on additional work"
4. Productive ways must be found to integrate the program for enrichment



*What administrative adaptations are effective in meeting the needs of the talented pupil?*

The type of program to be set up for the gifted students must necessarily be premised on the purposes of the junior high school which are based on the needs of the individual not only in terms of his educational skills, but also in terms of his social, emotional, and physical needs. For the purpose of a common viewpoint, our group chose to define the gifted in terms of IQ's. However, at the junior high-school level, the dynamic physical changes in the youth necessitate taking into consideration resultant emotional reactions upon which intellectual drive and achievement are often based.

The program for the gifted must be a well-balanced one which means the demands of society as well as the demands of the school must be met. However, each individual community may, by its nature, supply certain needs that the school need not duplicate. For instance, a homogeneous community may furnish a warm, basic emotional tone, but lack a diversity of viewpoint which supplies a healthy competitive drive. The challenge of the program for the gifted must demand equal effort for all students—the gifted as well as the average and below average. The gifted who are under-achievers are a loss to society.

Identification of the types of programs available were given by our resource persons: acceleration, enrichment of study, individual instruction, homogeneous grouping, and special classes. The type of program upon which a school begins its program for the gifted is immaterial. The important thing is to have one and to keep it flexible enough so adaptations can be made until it becomes a solid on-going program.

A program for the gifted must first of all be based on: (1) the acceptance of a philosophy toward the gifted and (2) responsibility for the education of the gifted. The acceptance of a philosophy for the gifted must be consistent with the concept of why we need a junior high school, with the social demands of good citizenship, productiveness, and with the local community needs. Responsibility for the education of the gifted must be identified as such by the board of education and a certain amount of tax money allocated to it assuring the taxpayer that this is not a temporary or fad program, but an on-going one upon which a solid total program for the gifted can be built.

Implementing such a program implies that the administrator will include some device for identifying the gifted, setting up scheduling or physical arrangements, and staffing the program. Grouping as a device, should be kept fluid. Any individual may be placed at any time in a more advanced or less advanced class. However, by and large, only twenty per cent or less of the total enrollment should be included in this program.

It is the administrator's job to set up physical arrangements. This will include (1) deciding whether the program will be carried on in a separate school, separate rooms, or part of regular classroom; (2) ordering neces-

sary materials or equipping special labs; (3) classifying community resources whether natural or personnel; and (4) staffing the program. Staff requirements for a program for the gifted should first of all provide for a coordinator (just as for mentally handicapped) who will pull together a broad program and constantly improve the techniques and services which are necessary to build a solid, total on-going program. Some specific jobs of the coordinator will be to identify students for the program, suggest ideas to teacher, set up programs or help schedule them, capitalize on community resources, and build enthusiastic good will in school and community. Our group suggested that one of the qualifications of the teacher of the gifted should be primarily a scholar who is *still learning*. This means that the gifted teacher must act as a catalytic agent, must respond to the needs of the gifted even as a teacher must respond to the needs of the mentally handicapped, must be excited by learning, and must know how to individualize instruction.

History is replete with examples of societal search for those capable of exceptional achievement. Biblical references call attention to the selection of prophets and elders, and Plato in his *Republic* detailed the superior criteria of his proposed philosopher-kings. In America, we have gone almost full circle. We have alternately derided the "egg-head," the intellectual-elite, and sought out and encouraged him. The schools, in America for almost 100 years, taking off from such scientific studies as those of Mendel, Darwin, Galton, Binet, and Terman, have structured programs to provide for the gifted. Most have utilized some plan for acceleration, enrichment, or special grouping.

The current wave of educational criticism has stressed the so-called "waste of talent" which has manifested itself in a lack of technically skilled people to staff an economic system in an age of automation and a lack of creative scientists in an age of nuclear energy.

#### Suggested Adaptations:

1. Let us say that there is enough money to employ one additional teacher in a building or a small system. Instead of employing a person for remedial work as is usually done, why not employ one to work at certain periods on challenging projects with the gifted. The regular classroom teacher would continue to work with the average and below average. All would remain in the same class, but more genuine enrichment would be possible.
2. Group flexibly by section to narrow the range of instruction required and within classes to take advantage of particular abilities and interests.
3. Guide pupils into subject matter offerings and electives calculated to challenge, interest, and develop.
4. Increased subject-matter loads—an extra unit per semester.
5. There should be more independent study and individual projects. Greater use should be made of the library and laboratory for investigations in depth. It was suggested that teachers have time scheduled for

supervising these "unscheduled" projects. Learning does not always take place within the regular classroom organization.

6. Community resources should be tapped increasingly and specialists from outside the school utilized where available.

*What considerations for the mental hygiene of talented pupils need to be recognized?*

1. Gifted pupils, as a group, seem to have fewer mental health problems than those of lesser intellectual ability, but are more likely to exhibit what they do have during the period of adolescence. Good mental hygiene practices are thus particularly significant in the junior high-school years.
2. There appears to be a lack of definition of responsibility for an adequate mental hygiene program for gifted students. These pupils need to be safeguarded in a program specifically designed for them, because of the pressures characteristic of such programs.
3. Certain mental health problems are peculiar to programs designed for the gifted pupils:
  - a. Because the pupil is capable of functioning at the intellectual level of the adult, teachers may expect him to deal with all problems at the adult level.
  - b. It is more difficult to develop and maintain a well-balanced program for the gifted. The talented student, because of his ability and interest, may confine his efforts to a very narrow academic experience.
  - c. Gifted students perceive, rather easily, discrepancies between concepts taught in the classroom and practices outside the school. The conflicts thus engendered are not easily resolved in the school situation.
4. Some practices recommended for an educational program for the gifted pupil and conducive to good mental health are as follows:
  - a. We should work on the principle that the more the pupil knows, the more knowledge he is exposed to, and the more likely it is that worthwhile interests will be developed.
  - b. Gifted children should be treated as children, but their talents should be exercised to a greater extent.
  - c. Three things are needed in an educational program for gifted pupils—
    - (1) Learning situations in which they actually *do* things of significance.
    - (2) Ways of making learning activities dramatic, important, and meaningful.
    - (3) Teaching personalities that can make learning seem dramatic and important.
  - d. A gifted student should be helped to see himself as he is and in his relationship to the group.
  - e. We need counselors for the under-achieving gifted pupil.
  - f. Teachers' responsibilities are first to guidance.
  - g. Parental cooperation is essential.
  - h. We need to work on the gifted pupil in terms of more universal values rather than confining efforts to very narrow areas of understanding and ability.

- i. Self-direction is the real goal of the teacher in the gifted pupil program.
  - j. We need individualization of instruction—a program for each pupil. This will assure us of adequate instruction for talented pupils.
  - k. Identification is the responsibility of the teacher, the administrator, and other school personnel with the skills needed in this process.
  - l. The program developed for gifted students should recognize and make provisions for many kinds of giftedness.
  - m. Love and understanding are as appropriate and as seriously needed for gifted students as for any other group in the public schools.
5. A number of programs for gifted students in communities represented in the group (Arlington Heights, Quincy, Wilmette, Waukegan, Urbana, Evanston, Taylorville) employ a variety of approaches;
- a. A project on historical literature
  - b. Partial segregation of gifted students
  - c. Special rooms for gifted only
  - d. Total ability grouping in the whole school
  - e. Ability grouping in some academic areas
  - f. Some acceleration
  - g. Ability grouping in classrooms
  - h. Reduction of class size

*What should be the nature of in-service education for regular classroom teachers?*

Purpose and sources of in-service education:

1. The purpose should be to improve teaching by increasing the experience and by improving the personality of teachers. This will help to make the profession proud of teachers and the teachers proud of the profession.
2. Sources of in-service training
  - a. Workshops and conferences
  - b. Regular courses for credit
  - c. Teachers meeting together in their own buildings
  - d. County institutes
3. Those who need in-service training
  - a. The potentially excellent teacher who hasn't taught
  - b. The teacher with a master's degree who hasn't been back to school for fifteen years
  - c. The good teacher who needs to widen horizons
4. The five-hour day has made considerable difference because there is not time now for individual buildings to have in-service training during the school day.

Examples of how in-service training may begin:

1. As "bull sessions" after school with principal, teachers, and janitors participating. These are entirely voluntary gatherings over a cup of coffee. These sessions may lead into committees, the purpose of which is to recognize deficiencies in the school, but, at the same time, to stress the contributions which individual faculty members can make; for example, the teacher who is a biology major with considerable knowledge of birds.

2. Because of a recognized problem—the revision and modernization of the curriculum—teachers are released from regular classes with no loss of pay, and a substitute provided for anywhere from a few days to as many as six weeks to work on a particular problem. Principals, board members, and teachers are sent, with all expenses paid, to appropriate conferences. In June these people act as chairman for voluntary workshops which are held for one week after school with additional salary, if attended. Also, authorities are brought in from nearby colleges to conduct workshops; for example, an authority on creative dramatics.
3. The science teachers from each grade are meeting together to prepare a "step-by-step" or "grade-by-grade" program which will have continuity.

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### PHYSICS COURSE BY NBC-TV

An entirely new concept in educational TV, marking an historic milestone in mass communications, was unveiled in October when the National Broadcasting Company (NBC-TV) began a series of 160 half-hour programs on physics for the Atomic Age, called "Continental Classroom," designed especially for high-school science teachers. The program got under way October 6, and will continue through next June 5. Classes are being televised over NBC stations across the nation five days a week from 6:30-7 A.M., local time. More than 200 colleges and universities have shown a real interest in the program, and the number is expected to climb. The participating colleges and universities may utilize the network program at no cost, and may charge the regular tuition rates for those registering for credit. Each institution will be expected to appoint a coordinator to administer the program locally, determine additional reading assignments, set up activities, prescribe examination procedures, and help evaluate the program. Teacher for the course is Dr. Harvey E. White, professor and vice chairman of the Department of Physics at the University of California at Berkeley. He is being assisted by other nationally known scientists.

The course is divided into two semesters, and Dr. White is planning to cover the content that he would normally include in a sequence of two four-semester-hour courses. The amount of credit given to those registering for the course will be determined by the participating institution, but the sponsors have recommended a minimum of three televised semesters. The first semester will concentrate on those aspects of physics necessary for an understanding of atomic and nuclear physics. From there, the broadcasts will dig into the subjects themselves. Throughout the year, there will be demonstrations and experiments, supplemented by carefully selected tests, additional reading, and out-of-class activities. The program is sponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, an NEA department, and supported by the Ford Foundation, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, and various industrial corporation. Although high-school science teachers are its main target, the course will also interest college students planning to teach science, liberal arts college students who recognize the importance of science in education, gifted high-school students wanting to learn more about physics, and adult citizens seeking to keep up with recent scientific developments.—*Education U. S. A.*

## Junior High School Guidance in the Space Age

GEORGE M. MULLERVY

**J**UNIOR high-school students as a group, having been dependent upon teachers, counselors, and parents in decision making, are suddenly confronted at the close of the eighth grade with vital problems of educational and vocational choices. It is the concern of many educators as well as the fortunes of many students that these discriminating choices are based upon intelligent reasoning and wise counseling.

The eighth-grade pupil has particularly a need for proper guidance because of the crucial character of the decisions which pupils make about their next educational steps. The decision which the eighth-grade student makes in selecting his high-school subjects is important for many years to come. It will have much to do about finishing his high-school course or dropping out of school. The courses he selects may help him into college or help keep him out of college. These decisions may have a great deal to do with the kind of work he will be doing ten or twenty years from now. It will affect the way he will live, the people he will meet and know, the person he will marry—the many things that make one life different from another.

Riverside Junior High School, with a student enrollment of more than five hundred students serves a suburban community. The socio-economic rating of students would be listed as middle class. The economic climate that surrounds the educational system could be classified as highly diversified. As administrator for the students at Riverside Junior High School in Rhode Island, I felt that a student planning booklet could be a helpful guidance aid in assisting the pupils with important decisions they must make during this critical year. In addition to course selections, occupational literature could be read by the student at his leisure in which glimpses at specific occupations are brought to the career minded young person, and at the same time lend support to parents and educators assisting him with plans for the future.

As in most secondary schools, guidance services at Riverside Junior High School offer much needed assistance in helping students find a goal in life and to plan accordingly. The guidance program is in agreement with Dr. Percival W. Hutson, who states in his book, *The Guidance Function in Education*: "Guidance in junior high school should accomplish the distribution of youth among educational and vocational oppor-

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tunities so that development may take place along lines best for the individual and society."

However, the need for a *Guide to Student Planning* booklet, which each eighth-grade student should have read and understood before he is confronted with vital decisions to make, became apparent to this administrator upon observation of many instances of students approaching the ninth-grade choice point without intentions, hope, or plans for their futures.

The complexity of the space age and the fact that these students have the exciting prospect of living in a world where work opportunities will be richer and ever more interesting makes imperative the placing in the hands of all eighth-grade students a career guidance booklet.

Since all publications of occupational information may become outdated rapidly, the purpose of this student handbook of career information was not to give an intensive study of specific occupation. Rather this guide would give the pupil some notion of the breadth and variety of opportunities that may be available to him.

The guidance booklet, in addition to presenting important information that each eighth-grade student needs to know—(1) about himself (his abilities, values, and interests), (2) about courses available to him in the ninth grade, and (3) about kinds of work and education required—did impress the parent as well as the student with the desire of the school for realistic career counseling. This public service cannot help but impress the community that such a publication is a logical extension of the school's commitment to the well being of its school citizens.

The guide is given to each eighth-grade student in April so that sufficient time exists for both student and parent to have read its contents. Meanwhile, eighth-grade guidance counselors discuss in group guidance classes various topics contained in this book.

In May the principal meets parents of eighth-grade students for one week of evenings and uses the book and testing results available to recommend courses best suited to the boys and girls of Riverside Junior High School. This plan, which allows both parents to visit the school, has resulted in high participation in parent-principal guidance conferences.

A happy combination of events effects this increased action upon parents of the eighth-grade pupils. *The Guide to Student Planning* booklet allows them to become familiar with vital facts of course selections. The testing director informs the student that he has completed scoring all prognosis, aptitude, and achievement tests. Parents informed by the content of the *Guide* are then most anxious to avail themselves of the opportunity of consulting the principal during the evening meetings to learn the objective and subjective analysis of their child's accomplishment.



## THE GUIDE TO STUDENT PLANNING

*The Guide to Student Planning* booklet could be best explained by listing the table of contents: *Preface, Guidance Services, Purpose and Scope of Booklet, Riverside Junior High School—Grade Nine, Awards from Riverside Junior High School, East Providence Senior High School Courses, Entrance Requirements—colleges, hospitals, advanced schools, Classification of Careers, Careers, Financial Facts About Education, Common Mistakes in Choosing a Career, Scholarship Information, Service Information—Military and Civil, Occupational Trends in East Providence, Employment Possibilities in East Providence, Applying for a Position, Conclusion.*

The *Guide* contains information about the various courses of study offered at Riverside Junior High School. Certificate requirements as well as those for the high-school diploma are given. Entrance requirements of the various hospitals, advanced schools and colleges are also listed. The catalogues are screened each year for any changes so that students receive current information.

The senior high-school guidance department releases annually pertinent facts concerning electives, and any changes are incorporated in our current publication. From this booklet, students and parents can plan at home not only the junior high-school course, but also the senior high-school courses as well.

Career thinking in a fast technological space age requires of a student an adequate background of up-to-date job information. Careers related to concentrated study in subject areas are defined briefly and grouped to indicate related activity.

The three hundred job opportunities listed are but a few of the 40,000 titles of occupations, but the student understands them in a grouping with the following classification: (1) professional and managerial; (2) clerical and sales; (3) service occupations; (4) agricultural, fishery, forestry, and kindred occupations; (5) skilled occupations; (6) semi-skilled occupations; and (7) unskilled occupations.

Financial facts about education begins with the statistics that an elementary graduate in his life time earns \$116,000; the average high-school graduate earns \$165,000; and the college graduate earns \$268,000.

The prevailing hourly rate of pay of the skilled craftsmen in Rhode Island is listed. Complete costs of local colleges and scholarship information are presented in detailed manner.

To make the student conversant with general economic conditions so that he may evaluate the variety of occupations and vocations, a listing of career areas which students of East Providence Senior High School generally pursue, as indicated by the guidance department, is given. These are business and sales work 50% (95% girls); manufacturing and industry 20%; armed services 6%; nursing 6%; teaching 5%; engineering 3%; pre-med dentistry 2%; chemists 2%; accountants 2%; and undecided 2%.

For some students, particularly the drop-out student, information about applying for a position is next given. How and where to apply for working papers, social security number, and recommendation letters are explained.

The four principal means of applying for a job are listed. Desirable and undesirable approaches by job seekers are then illustrated.

A discussion of common mistakes in choosing a career indicates to the youth that he must be objective and impersonal in an analysis of his own qualifications. He is also informed that he must be alert to relationship between supply of and demand for qualified personnel.

East Providence Industry, employing one hundred or more personnel, is listed. A description of the kind of industry and name and address of the personnel manager is given.

The information about the occupational trend in East Providence assists the student to know future trend of employment as well as the *status quo*. The discussion suggests to the student that he learn how his chosen industry, business, or profession operates as a whole; the place in the life of the town; and predictions for the future and world conditions affecting it.

The guidance booklet helps the student connect abilities, values, and interests to activities with which he is at present only vaguely familiar.

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#### 1959 AASA CONVENTION

The arts, which have played second fiddle to science and mathematics in current discussions of education, will star at the 1959 convention of the American Association of School Administrators to be held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 14-18. For the first time the AASA convention program will give major emphasis to the subject disciplines so often neglected in American schools—music, fine art, drama, literature, the dance, arts and crafts, and architecture.

All general sessions will feature great individual artists and performing groups. President Trillingham promises that only the musicians, actors, painters, dancers, and poets who are nationally acclaimed for their excellence are being invited. In commenting on convention plans, he said, "We hope to make every program so stimulating and so superior that every school administrator will go home with a greater appreciation of an enthusiasm for the creative arts." Authorities on literature, drama, music, architecture, and fine art will address the general sessions.

Not only will the ten general sessions feature exclusively the lively and creative arts, but also among the many clinics, case studies, panels, debates, and discussions which are ordinarily reserved for science, reading, mathematics, finance, school buildings, personnel, public relations, and like subjects the creative arts will take top billing. Furthermore, it is planned that almost continually throughout the five-day convention great art and music will be made available through the media of visual art and sound recordings.

## General Motors Is Host to High School Counselors

HELEN BECKER

GENERAL Motors Educational Relations Section put out the "welcome mat" for sixteen counselors April 15, 1958. I was one of the lucky ones selected to participate in this real conference between industry and education. Kenneth Meade, Director of Educational Relations, had arranged the program and invited the participants of which thirteen were men and three were women. They represented sixteen schools from five states—Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, and New York.

The conference covered a three-day period and was rich in information and rewarding in experience. We visited the beautiful General Motors Technical Center, the General Motors Institute at Flint, and the Ternstedt Division. Each part of this large and great industry was vastly different from the others, but visiting all three gave us a good, but brief over-all picture of the industry.

The Conference opened with a "Get Acquainted Dinner" at the Park Shelton Hotel where all of the participants stayed during the conference. Many of the General Motors personnel attended the dinner, so we became acquainted not only with other educators, but also with many of the men whom we would meet and know better during the next three days.

Wednesday morning we boarded a bus and were taken to the new and very beautiful G. M. Technical Center. The first conference was with Lawrence R. Hafstad, Vice-President in Charge of Research Staff. He discussed what industry wants in leadership material and how high schools can help develop this leadership. Dr. Hafstad felt that education should help mold a person into a "T-shaped" man. What is the "T-shaped" man? It is one who has a breadth of appreciation, supported by individual specialization. This breadth of appreciation should include a respect for knowledge enriched especially with the humanities and language facility. The discussion period brought forth many interesting questions on how to pick out leadership material to train for executive positions in the years ahead. Personally, I felt it was complimentary and an evidence of faith in Counselors and their work for the top men in this large industry to discuss this problem with us. I believe they feel we can select students of leadership quality and guide them in their educational program to meet the ever-growing need for executives.

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The next two conferences that morning were with Gordon S. White, and David F. Waggoner, members of the Personnel Staff. Mr. White explained the nation-wide scholarship program of General Motors. An entire paper could be written on this alone—enough to say here is that this scholarship program is open to all who qualify through examination. They need not be children of General Motors employees. General Motors spends about \$2,500,000 annually on this program.

Mr. Waggoner of the Personnel Staff discussed important characteristics in colleges graduates. The personnel staff critically reviews the interests, attitudes, temperment and emotional stability of the college graduates they employ. At present, this industry has more than 23,000 college graduates employed and more than 1,000 of them have M. A. degrees.

The morning conferences were followed by a luncheon and a trip around the Technical Center with emphasis on training facilities. That was followed by a meeting with a panel of eight employees recently graduated from high schools and colleges. We discussed with them how their high school had or had not helped them attain further education. It was a lively discussion. Practically all these young men agreed that they hadn't worked to capacity in high school and that, in spite of good counseling and teaching, they had done only what they wanted to do. They did bring out that homes with strong interest and demands in the educational field had been a determining factor in their development. I particularly liked this panel meeting, and it set a pattern for my further questioning of groups like this when we met in the following two days. The evening of the first day closed with a reception and dinner at the Park Shelton Hotel.

Thursday morning the group drove from Detroit to Flint *via* bus, a distance of sixty miles. We arrived in time for luncheon. Guy R. Cowing, President of the Institute, was our host and spoke briefly on "What General Motors Institute looks for in the High School Graduate." We then visited the school. I was especially interested in a very large area that accomodated many classes at the same time. This huge area was surrounded by small classrooms, conference rooms and instructors offices, and one large lecture room at the end. While we were there, there were drafting, chemistry, and physics classes going at the same time in a most orderly manner. I'd like to see this plan tried out at the high-school level. I think it has many advantages at a minimum of cost. After the tour of the Institute, each counselor met with the students that had been graduated from his or her high school. I met with four boys. They, like the college graduates, said they hadn't worked to capacity in high school. They named particular teachers who had been especially stimulating and demanding.

General Motors Institute is operated on a Cooperative plan—four weeks of school alternating with four weeks of work. Most of the students can make ends meet without too much financial assistance from home. They receive approximately \$2,000 annually while employed. Of this, \$575 is spent on tuition.

Friday, the group visited Ternstedt Division of General Motors. This is a Parts Plant, that makes automobile hardware. We visited all parts of it. It has an apprenticeship training group, and again, the counselors could meet graduates from their own high schools, talk with them, and see what part they played in the industry. Here, I was especially impressed with the large amount of hard work, manual labor, and creative ability that is needed for tooling the parts that later are used on the lines. After we had luncheon at this plant and a short conference, we drove back to the hotel and the three-day conference was over.

Through contacts I made at the conference, I have since arranged for a group of teachers from the art and drafting departments of Cass Technical High School to visit the styling staff of the Technical Center. I also was able to arrange for sixteen talented science students and their teachers of the nuclear science class to visit the Physics and Instrumentation Laboratory and the Radio Isotopes Laboratory. The Corporation also sent, on request, many copies of pamphlets I had received at the conference. These were distributed to other counselors at Cass.

In conclusion, I would like to say that *all* expenses—transportation meals, hotel, tips, *etc.*—were paid for by the General Motors Corporation. The men and women that were our hosts were gracious, agreeable, and constantly alert to our needs and wishes. It was an extremely pleasant conference—one at which I learned a great deal. I hope other industries have similar ones. I know all counselors would benefit from such a rich experience where they can actually see the products of our labors effectively at work in the business world.

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#### EDUCATION IN U. S. A.

The nation's total school and college enrollment, increasing for the fourteenth consecutive year, will reach a new all-time peak of about 45 million in the school year 1958-59, states Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education. One of every four persons in the United States will attend school or college. The shortage of qualified teachers, Dr. Derthick said, will continue this school year. Enrollment will be about 1,750,000 higher than the previous record enrollment of 43,195,000 last school year.

Public and private school enrollment in kindergarten through grade 8 is expected to total about 31,793,000, a gain of more than a million over last year's elementary-school enrollment of 30,670,000. A gain of almost half a million is expected in high school (grades 9 through 12), with an enrollment of 8,880,000 in 1958-59 compared with 8,424,000 last year. For every 100 persons aged 14-17 years, 83 persons will be enrolled in high school. Ten years ago 75 in 100 were enrolled. Colleges and universities are expected to enroll about 173,000 more students during the coming academic year than they did last year—3,623,000 this year, 3,450,000 last year.

# Organizational Considerations for Guidance Work

GAIL F. FARWELL  
and HERMAN J. PETERS

AS WE view the past development of guidance programs, as surveys of current practice come to the fore, as school boards and the lay public discuss the development of the school program, a common question seems to arise. Don't all school staff members provide guidance? The answer is probably yes, but we should not stop with this positive response. The same response would undoubtedly be rendered if we were to ask if each school staff member provided instruction or performed administrative functions. However, after the positive response has been forthcoming, the similarity ends.

In viewing the over-all educational process, as performed in the school, in terms of three major overlapping functions—the administrative function, the instructional function, and the guidance function—school organization has long been concerned with an adequate design for the administrative function and the instructional function. People have been delegated responsibility, a plan for action has been formulated, space and time have been provided, and monies and materials have been provided. The same cannot be said for the guidance program. In too many schools, guidance programs cannot be identified because incidentalism prevails or else guidance services have been allowed “to grow like Topsy” with no rhyme or reason for their development. Much of the confusion has existed because the top-level administrator has not chosen either to assume for himself or to delegate primary responsibility to a school staff member for the emergence of a longitudinal developmental guidance program. An adequate guidance program, the same as a good instructional program or effective administrative design in a school, requires a functional organizational framework to avoid duplication of effort, omission of function, and chaos. The organization of the guidance program must be considered as a means and not the end in providing a program of guidance services designed to assist each boy and girl reach his optimum in development. The focus of guidance work is on studying and understanding each self so that the instructional design in the school can become most meaningful and so that the administrative function can perform most efficiently in providing for effective guidance and instructional programs.

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## BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

The effective organization and administration of guidance services is dependent upon several factors, not left to chance, but an integral part of the thinking of a forward-looking school system.

*Line Responsibility.* In this day and age it may be a cliché, but school programs develop more frequently than not in terms of the philosophy, beliefs, and attitudes of the top administrative officer of the school as he reflects the needs and pressures of a community. This does not mean that he operates without the help of others, but it does mean that he fights for and supports with the community, school board, and faculty those things which he perceives worthy of his efforts and consideration. The top-level administrator is employed for the express purpose of providing leadership in the education program. This is his primary responsibility. Because of multitudinous duties and the complexity of a modern school, the administrator must delegate important duties to subordinates. In this respect, an assistant superintendent, coordinator, or director of guidance should be delegated the primary responsibility for organizing and administering the guidance services. The same responsibility should be rendered for the instructional area. Unless some person has as his primary responsibility the various ramifications of the guidance program, we are providing a breeding ground for incidentalism, confusion, and no hope for a developmental program of guidance services.

*Primary-secondary Responsibilities.* An effective school program cannot become a reality unless teamwork prevails. Teamwork implies that each participant has a major role to play (primary) and also some minor roles to perform (secondary). We might use as an example the role of a pitcher on a major league team. As long as he pitches the ball to the batters so that in one way or another he gets them out, we are satisfied that he is performing his primary function; however, he must field his position to some degree and he must take his turn at bat as secondary functions. In these latter two instances, we do not expect outstanding proficiency because he has teammates who are expected to be more proficient at these tasks.

So it is with the educational team: we must define the roles of school staff members, assess the capabilities of the persons employed, and then assign primary and secondary responsibilities. The administrative head of the guidance program (guidance director) has primary responsibilities for organization, leadership, coordination, evaluation, and improvement of guidance services. He may have some secondary responsibilities in counseling and instruction. In contrast, the school counselor has primary responsibility for counseling and utilizing the other guidance services as they enhance the counseling relationship; he will have some secondary responsibilities in administration and instruction. The primary role of the classroom teacher is one of instruction with secondary responsibilities for guidance work and administration.



The foregoing teamwork approach allows us to know our major responsibilities and to know what is expected of us in our secondary roles. Good administrative practice utilizes the strengths of the staff to an optimum with the realization that the educative process is complex and that many talents of many people are needed.

*A Guidance Point of View.* Unless we have a basic philosophical framework for our guidance program, we have nothing on which to structure objectives. Without program objectives, we are in a poor position to bargain for staff, time, facilities, and finances for guidance work. Many guidance viewpoints have been expressed and presented in written form. These have ranged from emphasis on problem or choice-point identification of guidance activities such as vocational guidance, health guidance, educational guidance, *ad infinitum*; to emphasis on the construct that every teacher is a guidance worker so there is no need for a specialist in guidance work; and finally to a belief that effective guidance work requires specialized assistance as well as the assistance of all school staff members. The authors stated the following guidance point of view in another article with the belief that it is a defensible philosophy for a functional guidance program. "Guidance may be defined as a point of view. It may also be considered in terms of services necessary to implement the point of view. As a concept, guidance is based on the existence of individual differences and the worth-whileness of each person. The guidance point of view emphasizes the unique needs of each individual, needs which may not be compatible with those needs which a teacher so often pre-determines. Guidance as an education construct involves those experiences which assist each pupil to understand himself, accept himself, and live effectively in his society."<sup>1</sup>

*Community Dimensions.* The administrator of guidance services who does not ascertain the needs of the community, the characteristics of the community, and the attitudes of the community population is inviting non-support of his program by parents and taxpayers. Good guidance programs do not require a tremendous increase in funds, but a different allotment of the already existent funds may be needed, community attitudes may have to be modified, and a defense of program may be required so that support, at least verbal expression of support for a developmental guidance program, would be forthcoming. In this way the superintendent and school board will know the community dimensions and forces that are both conducive to and demanding of an organized guidance program.

*Pupil Dimensions.* We perform guidance functions, we plan a guidance program, and we implement these through guidance services for one major purpose—to assist each pupil of the school in becoming a mature self, taking into consideration the complex psycho-socio-physical forces both within and from without the individual. In this sense we must

<sup>1</sup>Herman J. Peters and Gail F. Farwell, "What Is Guidance?" *Ohio Schools*, Vol. 34, #6 (September 1956), p. 23.

consider the pupil population in organizing the guidance services. We need to know the range of abilities, the types of concerns, the pupil needs, the normal expectations, the crucial choice points, and the attitudes and values of pupils. These are a few of the pupil dimensions that help to determine the scope of the program and the functions to be performed. The population of any school has its own characteristics and this range of characteristics is tremendous. *A good guidance program uses as its base pupil dimensions in determining what is to be organized.*

*Service Dimensions.* A developmental guidance program involves: knowing the pupil; providing the pupil with a realistic awareness of the life forces which surround him; providing a setting that is conducive to self revelation, interpretation, and adjustment; adequate placement both within the school and in job or educational opportunities outside the school; and an evaluation of the effectiveness of the action taken within the scope of the guidance program. The guidance services commonly identified with each of the foregoing are the pupil inventory service, the information service (educational, occupational, and social-personal), the counseling service (the heart and core of the program), the placement service, and the follow-up service.

*Staff and Time Dimensions.* A good guidance program needs a school staff that is sensitive to good guidance practices under the leadership of an adequately prepared school counselor. A developmental guidance program operates on the premise that all school personnel are involved in guidance activities—some to a lesser degree than others. The preparedness of the staff will be on a continuum ranging from little or no formal preparation in guidance work for some teachers to that of at least master's degree preparation for the school counselor. Adequate usage of staff time should be based first on preparation and the scope of duties that the individual can professionally perform. The school counselor should be allowed to spend the greater proportion of his time in the counseling relationship which is the "heart" of the guidance process. To facilitate the effective functioning of the counseling service and the four supportive services, the element of staff time must be considered. Each school staff member expected to contribute to the guidance program must be permitted time to perform his guidance duties the same as his instructional and administrative duties. The administrator who organizes a guidance program, employs trained leadership, and then does not recognize that a provision of time is necessary is asking for the failure of the program at its inception. Teachers should have as a minimum at least one period a day for guidance activities. The recommendation for a full-time guidance specialist with guidance duties other than counseling is about 250 counselees; a load for a full-time counselor should not exceed 500 counselees if he is to perform primarily in the counseling service.

*Dimensions of Finance and Facility.* An effective organizational structure for guidance services must, in addition to the foregoing dimensions,

provide necessary financial support and physical facilities. The estimates of cost for guidance services vary, but recommendations have generally been in the neighborhood of five per cent of the gross budget for operating the school. In practice, it has been found that few schools meet this standard. The exact financing of a program will have to be determined locally. The most essential physical facility for any guidance program is adequate provision for counseling. The first guideline being provision for privacy; other considerations would be adequate space for small group work, a materials center accessible to students for occupational, educational, and social-personal information, and reception space.

#### SUMMARY

The adequacy of good guidance work cannot be left to chance or incidentalism. A developmental guidance program in schools is dedicated to knowing, understanding, and assisting boys and girls to acquire the most from the potentialities they possess and the learning situation which is provided. Leadership, competent staff, finances, time, facilities, and a reasonable pupil load are all dimensions to be considered when organizing, promoting, and administering high-quality guidance services.

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#### NEW CURRENT EVENTS FORUMS AT THE U. S. STATE DEPARTMENT OFFERED TO STUDENT GROUPS VISITING WASHINGTON, D. C.

The U. S. State Department has announced a new program designed to enlighten student groups throughout the nation on world affairs. Conducted by a Global Briefing Officer in the Department Auditorium, Forums will be held on the third Wednesday of each month and are available to all school groups making an advance appointment through the School Service Department of the Greater National Capital Committee, 1616 K St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C., or directly with the U. S. State Department.

At each forum, students will be offered a unique opportunity to learn of contemporary international events, their background, and the role of the United States in its relations with other nations. The atmosphere will be informal as in the classroom, and questions will be answered. The sessions will last approximately an hour and a half.

The new forum program represents another step toward the goal of providing maximum educational benefits to the ever increasing number of schools making academic field trips to the Nation's Capital during the fall and winter months. To schedule an appointment for any forum or for information about the Nation's Capital, write to the School Service Department of the Greater National Capital Committee, 1616 K Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

## Exploratory Business for Junior High School

EDWARD R. CUONY

ONE of the primary purposes of the American junior high school is to provide exploratory experiences. In organizing the junior high school in Geneva, the parents and faculty devoted an entire year to developing a curriculum to meet this end. In reviewing the curriculum of our new school, we felt that the business area had been slighted. Our review indicated that many of our students, while not entering into commercial fields, were concerned with basic business practices. We also found that many of the students who prepared for college did not have an opportunity to elect business subjects in the senior high school. Follow-up studies and post-graduate interviews of our senior high-school graduates indicated to us that our students could profit from some training in the basic "business" practices.

The faculty and administration reviewing these data, decided to offer exploratory business to seventh- and eighth-grade students. The purpose of the offerings was not to prepare for vocations, but rather to provide experiences in the business practices. In the seventh grade, general business practices are offered and in the eighth grade, personal typing. The classes meet for two or three periods per week for twenty weeks. Our feeling was that classes of this type would provide sufficient background for evaluating student experiences in this area and also provide a basis for additional vocational training in the senior high school if the student so desired. For the student who did not or could not, because of scheduling difficulties, elect business subjects, we hoped that it would provide sufficient skills and knowledge of practices which would stand him in good stead in his personal life.

The aims and objectives of the seventh-grade exploratory business course are noted below:

### *I. General*

A. Develop understanding of "business" and basic activities involved in same.

B. Develop appreciation for the work done by employees in the three key business areas—bookkeeping, shorthand, and selling.

C. Develop understanding of factors involved in success for people employed in these three areas.

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## II. Bookkeeping

A. Understanding of basic bookkeeping terms and the work of a bookkeeper.

B. Ability to:

1. Maintain and prove a personal cashbook
2. Maintain and prove a personal cashbook with classified payments
3. Figure net worth of an individual
4. Prepare a simple balance sheet
5. Prepare individual accounts receivable
6. Record simple transactions in a journal
7. Post totals from journal to ledger
8. Prepare a trial balance
9. Prepare a simple profit and loss statement

C. Develop understanding of

1. Debit and credit
2. Bookkeeping cycle
3. Importance of bookkeeping to individuals and business

D. Attitudes:

1. Stress importance of accuracy
2. Demonstrate integration of each step into the whole purpose of bookkeeping—stress "why" of each process to show need of detail and accuracy
3. Develop good work habits
4. Develop neatness and attention to detail

## III. Shorthand

A. Acquaint students with principles of Gregg shorthand.

B. Develop ability to spell and read words constructed from the shorthand alphabet.

C. Develop phonetic ability.

D. Acquaint students with occupations in which shorthand is required and training involved for such positions.

## IV. Selling

A. Develop understanding of important factors in a salesman's job.

B. Develop appreciation of training, knowledge, and personal qualities needed in the selling field.

C. Develop understanding of various types of selling occupations available.

D. Develop understanding of arithmetic involved in selling, such as commissions problems and making change.

E. Widen vocabulary by discussing personality traits required in selling, with emphasis on selling and meaning.

## V. Banking

A. Develop understanding of:

1. The bank as a business that sells services
2. Process in opening a checking account
3. Correct check writing procedures
4. Savings accounts
5. Simple bank reconciliation statement
6. Arithmetic involved in keeping a checkbook.

The specific aims and objectives of the personal typing course offered to all eighth-grade students are those generally subscribed to in a general

course in personal typing. Specifically, we attempt to have our students obtain a mastery of the letter keyboard and orientation to the various machine parts. The approach in class is to prepare young people to type for their own uses. The typing of letters, class notes, and papers was stressed.

The teacher of the Personal typing used the conventional method of teaching typing. The instructor encouraged proficiency and neatness by frequent bulletin board displays of pupil work. The other teachers on the staff complimented students when typed work, neatly done, was handed to them. Students were permitted time for drill. Students were also encouraged to type class notes and other assignments. English classes typed their book reports.

Our clubs and organizations benefited from this instruction in basic business practices. Club accounts were kept in much better order. The school newspaper derived a great deal of benefit since a large group of students were able to apply their skills in producing and selling the paper. Parent comments regarding the instruction in various business practices were favorable and we have been asked to continue this exploratory experience.

From a guidance point of view, a careful evaluation of the student's progress in these courses can provide a sounder basis for counseling. The experiences gained here indicate the advantages of additional training. For the student who does not elect more training in this general area, it provides a greater appreciation of business as well as some fundamental knowledge of the various skills. We feel that these courses are a worthwhile experience for our young people.

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#### TEACHING ABOUT THE UN

*The United Nations in the School Program* is the title of a textbook being produced by the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association. The study aims at providing teachers with useful and meaningful classroom activities about the United Nations and its specialized agencies. Specifically, it will attempt to provide students with a knowledge of the UN system and encourage teachers to develop new ideas and activities. An effort to interest teachers to contribute to the study and to form study groups and workshops on the United Nations is under way. State offices of education, committees of international relations of state education associations, and interested non-governmental organizations are being supplied with full particulars on the study. Their help is sought in locating teachers who have conducted effective courses about the UN.

## Ninth Grade Orientation and Programming

LLOYD NIELSEN

MANY school systems in Wisconsin and in other parts of the United States share with Merrill High School the problem of orientating and programming for ninth-grade students from a variety of school backgrounds. Provisions for accomplishing this at Merrill were developed over a period of years, reaching the form outlined here in the spring of 1957. Former Superintendent Russell Way and Principals James Stolenberg and Lloyd Nielsen were instrumental in various stages of its development.

The ninth grade at Merrill each year is composed of between 210 and 275 students. Approximately one-fourth come from three denominational parochial schools, three-eighths from thirty-six rural schools, and three-eighths from the city public junior high school. The main purposes of the orientation system used in Merrill are: (a) to make the transition from eighth to ninth grade as smooth as possible for all of the youngsters, relieving much of the anxiety that is frequently present; and (b) to program students so as to best meet their individual needs in class work.

The first of these effects students from parochial and rural school much more than the city public school students. Since ninth grade is part of the city junior high school, the anxiety of a new building, operating regulations, and completely unfamiliar teachers is not present for the eighth grade pupils enrolled in the city public school.

The initial contact made with students in the parochial and rural schools takes place in February when they come to the junior high school in groups of fifteen to twenty to become familiar with the physical plant, to meet the administrative and guidance personnel, some of the ninth-grade teachers, and a few of their future classmates who are enrolled in the junior high-school eighth grade. This is only a brief visit of an hour or two to "break the ice" and help them feel a sense of welcome and sense of belonging. During the month of February, the eighth-grade pupils in the city junior high school devote part of their work in social studies to exploring the world of work and possible careers. The film, *Planning My Career*, is viewed and each student has the second individual interview of the year with one of the counselors.

The second step in the program takes place during March when all of the next year's ninth-grade pupils have the ninth-grade courses of study

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explained and discussed and are given a battery of tests. The rural and parochial students do this during their second visit to the school. This visit lasts most of one day, which incidentally gives them an opportunity to become acquainted with eating in the school cafeteria. During this visit, each student receives a printed detailed description of the ninth-grade courses and a general outline of courses offered in grades 10, 11, and 12. These are gone over carefully with the guidance coordinator, and effort is made to encourage individual questions these students may have. The remainder of the day is devoted to testing. The *California Tests of Achievement* (reading, language, mathematics) and a locally developed test of science understandings are given. The eighth-grade students enrolled in the junior high school are tested during the same week and receive their course orientation in social studies classes a week later.

Once the tests are scored, individual raw scores are broken down into ten percentile groups of their class (e.g. the ten per cent who scored highest on a test are in the top ten percentile of their class). A master list is then made of all students entering ninth grade the next year along with their raw score on each of the tests and their ten percentile rank on each test.

During the early weeks of April, all of these future ninth-grade pupils make out a course of study for ninth grade with the assistance of their present eighth-grade teachers. A very tentative four-year program is also made out at this time. These are then sent to the junior high-school principal along with a pupil information sheet. Information on this sheet includes previous test scores, special interests, and a teacher evaluation of the scholarship ability of the student.

The programs selected by the students are then reviewed by the principal, the guidance coordinator, and the counselors. The main variables that a student might select are general mathematics or algebra and general science or biology. Further attempt is made to identify pupils of extremely low arithmetic performance or reading performance and to program them in sections where their needs could be more easily met. Each student's selected program is compared with the test data and pupil information sheets. Research carried on in the 1956 school year revealed a very high correlation between the raw score on the *California Arithmetic Test* and the degree of success in algebra. More limited research indicated a positive correlation between the locally developed science test and success in biology. As test scores, pupil information sheets, and programs are reviewed, those pupils showing a marked discrepancy are set aside for further study. Parents are notified by mail that the school recommends a change in the program selected and are invited to contact the guidance personnel. If no contact is made by the parent, the recommended change is effected.

Late in April, a Parent Night at the school is devoted to a general explanation of course offerings and opportunities in grades nine through

twelve. Following the program, parents have an opportunity for individual conferences with counselors and teachers.

The final phase of orientation takes place during the week previous to the fall opening of school. Parents and students are notified by mail and by the local press and radio that conferences with teachers are being held. A full day is set aside for this purpose. At these conferences, general school procedures such as attendance, daily schedule, equipment, and supplies are explained; also a final check of the course schedule is made.

This system as described has not been in effect long enough to make an objective evaluation of its success. Future follow-up studies on achievement, grades, and dropouts can give evidence whether or not the arrangement is successful in doing what it set out to do. Subjective evaluations by students, teachers, and parents as each element of this program has been developed have been very favorable.

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#### WCOTP SCHEDULES 1959 MEETING IN UNITED STATES

Not since the groundwork for what is now the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession was laid twelve years ago in Endicott, New York, has that organization met in the United States. Now, WCOTP officers have announced that the 1959 annual assembly will be held at the new NEA building in Washington during the first week in August. The announcement was made at the Rome assembly where educators from 60 nations, representing over three and a half million teachers, met in early August.

"Public Support for Education," the 1958 theme, dominated the thinking of the past session. In his opening presidential address, Sir Ronald Gould of England declared that the concept of equality of educational opportunity provides the "compulsive power, the energy, the drive, the dynamism behind educational reform today."

As the 300 delegates and observers wound up their week-long conference, they passed a resolution affirming that "education is the fundamental right of every child without discrimination and regardless of the economic status of the individual." The resolution further stated that it is the responsibility of the State (Federal, state, and local) to provide free for every child an adequate education at all levels suited to his need and ability.

The 1958 meeting of WCOTP was notable for at least two reasons, according to observers: (1) The rapidly expanding nature of the WCOTP program as presented by Secretary-General William G. Carr was evidenced by new activities in Asia, Africa, and Latin America as well as in Europe, America, and Australia; (2) The newly appointed substantive committees were already showing achievement.

## An Experiment with Multiple Counseling

ANNA L. BREWER

IT IS generally agreed by educators that the junior high school must endeavor to develop character, teach citizenship, discover interests and aptitudes, and aid pupils in successful living. With the above stated philosophy in mind, the counseling staff at Pattengill Junior High School decided, during the spring of 1957, to see what could be done by way of servicing more pupils through multiple or group counseling. After considerable research on the part of the counselors, it was found that little formal material is available.

The assistant principal presented some of the possibilities of multiple guidance to the faculty and, at the same time, presented a list of twenty suggested topics for each grade of the junior high school. The faculty was asked to give the whole matter consideration and to decide whether or not it was felt the counseling staff could be of more service and, if so, in which fields and for which topics. A short time later the director of pupil personnel was invited to speak before the faculty on the topic of group dynamics. Following this meeting it was decided to start an experiment with the seventh-grade pupils in the fall of 1957 along the line of multiple counseling on a scheduled basis with the 7B counselors. Tentative objectives were determined as follows:

1. To develop desirable pupil-counselor relationships by giving pupils an opportunity to see their counselors
2. To open an avenue whereby the pupils may feel free to discuss any problems that may arise by asking for individual conferences
3. To guide the pupils by giving information
4. To service more pupils on certain general topics in a given length of time
5. To focus collective judgment on common problems
6. To develop desirable ideals and habits of citizenship.

Topics selected for this experiment as a result of suggestions from the teaching staff and particularly the seventh-grade home-room and classroom teachers were: orientation—including conduct expected of Pattengill citizens (corridors, home rooms, classrooms, auditorium, school events, on the street, and in public places)—; how to make and keep friends; school awards; and the code of a good student. Points of ethical character with emphasis on the ten citizenship points as adopted by the school council are stressed constantly whenever and wherever needed in connection with all multiple counseling situations.

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The scheduling of the seventh-grade students takes place during one period of the school day. We happen to have chosen the first hour because our four seventh-grade counselors are free this particular hour. Students report to their classes for roll call, then they are excused to meet with their counselors. To schedule the entire grade covers a period of six days. During the first twenty-two weeks our counselors have had eighteen group meetings; i.e., the entire seventh grade has been serviced three times in a group situation.

The interests and needs of each group of scheduled counselees determine, for the most part, the topic discussed. Our counselors are aware that an unwise choice of subject matter may completely destroy the effectiveness of a group counseling situation. Therefore, our seventh-grade counselors have met frequently to make a careful discrimination in considering topics for the next group meeting. By no means was it intended that the topics suggested should destroy counselor or counselee initiative, but rather that they should furnish some source from which the counselor might have available information and then adapt it to the needs of each group.

Through evaluation of our program to date, we feel that this series of programs has covered a different phase of guidance than that gained through individual counseling in so far as students are able to benefit from the ideas gained through working with their own peers. A great many individual interviews have been requested as a result of the group meetings. Many multiple counseling meetings have also been the outgrowth of the scheduled meetings where counselors have been working with two to eight counselees with like problems. Students have become aware that other students have like problems and that they are not "alone" in their attempt to grow up.

The counseling chairman is building a bibliography of sources of available films and materials for multiple counseling situations. These materials are being assembled under general topic headings. As the program grows, we hope this can be produced in booklet form with pages allowed for adding new materials.

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#### TOOLS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

The National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois, has recently published a helpful 16-page booklet entitled *Tools for Teaching English*. This publication describes a wealth of materials that the Council has prepared for the teacher of English. Write for a free copy.

In carrying out this project, the NEA will seek to capitalize on projects now going on; to test opinions on them; to distill research findings and attempt to identify the good practices; and to make recommendations that will contribute to the welfare of both the teachers and the children.

# The Role of a Comprehensive Program of Orientation in a New School District

ROBERT E. FITZ PATRICK  
and MRS. EMMA E. PLATTOR

IN MANY school districts today there is an increasing awareness of the role which positive orientation experiences play in the difficult transition from childhood to youth and in the satisfactions which students realize from their educational and vocational preparation. The following report describes two phases of an orientation and articulation program which have been developed to serve the needs of the Plainview School District on Long Island. Located in a fast growing suburban community adjacent to New York City, Plainview educated fifty children in 1950 and now enrolls over 5,000.

Of the many new ideas and programs developed in the past few years, this program of orientation has won more friends in the community and created more understanding and support than any other. The first phase of the program deals with the initial introduction of elementary students to secondary school; the second concerns itself with the planning and analysis required in the transition from eighth to ninth grade.

In most school districts, families are well established and have grown with the community. Even in such stable school districts, it is generally accepted that the transition from one school situation to another requires much preparation. In such a community as the one herein described, the pupil is faced with many new experiences all at once and thus the transition from elementary to secondary school becomes an even more difficult adjustment. Students under these conditions need to be provided with very positive orientation experiences in their orientation to the new school situation.

This report is concerned with the development of just such a series of orientation experiences by the administration and guidance staff of a relatively new junior-senior high school. The program was based on the expressed needs of the faculty and administration of both the elementary and secondary levels in the district.

## PHASE I

### *Initial Planning*

In order to introduce the elementary orientation program, the seventh-grade counselor was assigned to spend one day a week in the district's

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elementary schools. This time was used in meeting sixth-grade students and teachers. Commencing in November and continuing through May, this phase of the program enabled the counselor to get to know about 300 pupils in eleven classes in four elementary schools. The following orientation plan was initially proposed by the Guidance Department:

1. The organization of meetings with the administration, faculty, students, and parents of both the elementary and junior high schools in order to determine needs, enlist support, develop ideas cooperatively, and prepare a series of classroom orientation activities.

2. The composition of a handbook for sixth-grade students prepared with the cooperation of the art and audio-visual departments, the student council, and all interested faculty members and students.

3. The creation of a handbook of study skills to be used in a series of lessons on study techniques in an effort to prepare the sixth-grade students for secondary school.

4. The organization of a panel composed of junior high-school students and the seventh-grade counselor to discuss the junior high school at assembly programs in the elementary schools.

5. The preparation of an evening orientation meeting for parents of sixth-grade students.

6. The initiation of an orientation program within the junior high school, utilizing the following techniques:

- a. Visits by each sixth-grade student to the junior high school
- b. Buddy system of visitation using seventh-grade students as guides
- c. Conferences with groups visiting the junior high school to determine reactions
- d. Group tours of the junior high school
- e. Follow-up activities in June and September of the new term
- f. Faculty meetings to establish class placement of sixth-grade students in the junior high school
- g. Evaluation reports by teachers and students.

#### *Faculty Members Express Needs*

In order to implement the plan, periodic meetings were held with administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents. The sixth-grade teachers and administrators expressed several pertinent needs:

1. The development in the students of an understanding of the mechanics of the junior high school, such as departmental organization, study halls, detention, curriculum, etc. They felt that these understandings should be developed through orientation activities carried out over a period of time and devised to fit in with the sixth-grade curriculum, rather than prepared as a specific unit.

2. The development of a program of orientation activities within the classroom which would culminate in a trip to the junior high school. They felt that preparation for this trip should be carefully planned, and agreed that the panel discussion, as proposed in the initial planning, would be an excellent introduction to the tours.

3. The development of a unit on study techniques with some brief discussion of the applicability of school subjects to broad vocational categories. They felt that understandings in these areas needed to be broadened and that such a

unit was a valid and necessary part of an orientation program. They agreed that the preparation of a study guide, as proposed in the initial planning, would be valuable.

4. The preparation of a handbook for sixth-grade students. They felt that such a handbook was essential and should be written by the junior high-school students if possible in order to keep the material readable and representative.

#### *Orientation Activities in the Classroom*

Starting in November, weekly meetings were held with each sixth-grade class. These meetings were planned cooperatively by the counselor and the administrators and teachers on a rotating schedule. Among the activities were:

1. Compositions on the topic: "What I Want To Know About Junior High School"
2. Discussions about the mechanics of the junior high school based on the needs expressed in the compositions
3. Pupil-counselor planning for further activities
4. Use of audio-visual aids about study habits and testing
5. Lessons on study habits, using a booklet written and illustrated by students in the junior high school entitled "Stepping Stones to Study Skills"
6. Discussion of broad occupational categories and their relation to specific subjects studied in school, utilizing charts composed for this purpose.

#### *Panel Discussion*

Toward the middle of March, planning by the combined faculties and students of both the elementary and junior high schools was begun for the panel discussion, the tour of the junior high school, and an evening program for parents of sixth-grade pupils. Based on this planning, a panel of junior high-school students met with the sixth grades at assembly programs in their respective schools to discuss the secondary school and answer questions in the expectation that their answers would be more interesting and pertinent to sixth-grade students than those given by a counselor or a teacher. The panelists were seventh-grade student council members who had volunteered to work with the counselor. Each presented a three-minute talk on one phase of the junior high school. At the conclusion of the presentations, the meeting was opened to questions from the students and teachers. The entire discussion was recorded on tape for purposes of evaluation.

#### *Trips to the Junior High School*

The trips to the junior high school were planned with the cooperative support and suggestions of the building administrators and faculty members. Two sixth-grade classes per day, accompanied by their respective teachers, were taken by school bus to the junior high school, arriving at nine o'clock in the morning. The pupils were greeted on arrival by the counselor and an administrator, and each was assigned a seventh-grade "buddy" whose class program both would follow for several periods. The seventh-grade students who served as buddies had been carefully selected by their teachers, and had been well briefed on their responsibilities to the



sixth-grade students. Together they attended four periods. The teachers had been requested to make no change in the conduct of their classes. Each guide had been requested to bring his "guest" to the guidance office during his lunch period. At this time, the sixth-grade students were taken in small groups on a tour of the entire building by the counselor. When all the junior high-school pupils had completed their lunch periods, guides brought the sixth-grade students to the cafeteria for a luncheon conference. This time was selected so as to avoid confusion in the lunchroom and provide a final period for questions and answers.

### *Parents Meeting*

Immediately after the tours were completed, an orientation meeting was scheduled for the parents of the sixth-grade pupils. Each parent was sent a personal invitation and the meeting was announced each morning for one week at each of the elementary schools. A panel composed of the school principal, assistant principal, guidance supervisor, and seventh-grade counselor described the program and services of the junior high school and answered questions from the audience. At the conclusion of the meeting, groups of parents were taken on a tour of the building by the panelists. Comments of the parents during and after these tours indicated that the program had been successful in creating an awareness on the part of the parents of the efforts which the school was making to prepare each youngster to complete successfully the transition from elementary to secondary school.

### *Student Evaluation*

The orientation program proceeded smoothly. As a followup activity, the counselor again visited each of the sixth grades early in June. At this time, the students were presented with copies of the student handbook and discussions of the program were again held. These discussions established that the orientation activities had been able to meet the needs of the pupils on several levels:

1. Concern over departmental organization and the mechanics of the junior high school was alleviated.
2. The role of the teacher-specialist (mathematics, science, shop, *etc.*) was clarified.
3. Pupil personnel services in the junior high school were outlined.
4. Both the efforts of the guides and the results of the small group tours made the school seem warmer and more friendly.

As another follow-up activity, the counselor sent letters to all staff members and student guides who had participated in the program thanking them for their assistance. The sixth-grade classes also wrote letters to the counselor expressing their feelings about the program. A typical letter read as follows:

Thank you for the wonderful time I had at the junior high school. I enjoyed myself and, at the same time, I found out what seventh grade is like. All of my questions were answered by my guide, who told me of my duties to myself, my

teachers, my classmates, and my school. I think the guides did a wonderful job of showing us what is expected in the school.

I know I will be happy next year because I know what to expect and what I have to do, thanks to your planning of the orientation program.

### *Teacher Evaluation*

In October of the new term, a questionnaire was sent to all seventh-grade teachers asking for evaluative comments on the orientation program based on the behavior and attitudes of the current seventh-grade class. The following are quotes from letters written by the teachers:

1. The orientation program familiarized the pupils with the physical plant, thereby facilitating movement to class, punctuality, and time for preparation in class.
2. Strangeness was absorbed. Fewer pupils got lost.
3. Prompt use of the library by new students was developed.
4. The present seventh grade seems more confident, better mannered, and more willing to cooperate than the previous seventh grade.
5. There appeared to be less confusion and fewer questions in general than from the previous class.

### *Adjustment as a Continuing Process*

As the change from childhood to youth continues, as a growing awareness of the function of the secondary school gradually permeates the student's thinking, the same seventh-grade pupils who benefitted from a carefully planned program of orientation experiences upon entering the junior high school look forward to high school with anticipation and confidence. Continuation of a comprehensive program of articulation and orientation should thus result in a well-adjusted, comfortable high-school student.

Although the junior-senior high school with which this report is concerned is organized on a 6-6 basis, the fact remains that a major change takes place at the end of the eighth grade. While the three junior high-school years—7, 8, and 9—are theoretically exploratory in nature, for all practical purposes the exploratory phase ends at the close of the eighth year as the Carnegie Unit system goes into effect at the start of the ninth year. Because of limited knowledge and experience most eighth-grade students are not prepared to make definite vocational choices. However, they have explored enough school subjects to begin to recognize their own interests and abilities.

## PHASE II

### *Initial Planning*

In order to make the selection of a high-school program more meaningful to parents and their children, a comprehensive program of group guidance and individual counseling was proposed by the administration and eighth-grade counselor in order to:

1. Assist pupils and their parents to understand the importance of considering each youngster's capabilities, interests, and aptitudes in planning the high-school program

2. Familiarize the pupils with course offerings in the senior high school
3. Plan tentatively a full four-year program for each individual pupil as well as select the ninth-grade elective courses in order to make goals clear and realistic
4. Assist the administration to organize curricular and extracurricular offerings to meet individual needs.

Since adequate preparation and course selection for high school require that pupils analyze themselves in terms of their aptitudes, abilities, and interests as well as analyze course offerings in the high school, the following general orientation plan was initially proposed:

1. The organization of a program of group guidance in the eighth-grade classes
2. The composition of a handbook for eighth-grade students, describing course offerings and defining terminology used in planning a high-school program
3. The preparation of an orientation meeting for parents of eighth-grade students
4. The provision for individual interviews to be held with each student and his parents for scheduling.

#### *Orientation Activities in the Classroom*

After the initial planning, the project was taken to the faculty for their comments and suggestions. The faculty enthusiastically approved the entire plan as originally proposed, and assisted in arranging a schedule which enabled the eighth-grade counselor to meet each eighth-grade section once a week over a period of three weeks. Since there were ten eighth-grade classes, this program involved thirty hours of counseling time.

#### *First Meeting*

The counselor and the pupils began the group guidance sessions by discussing the aims and goals of the meetings and the methods which the pupils could use for self-analysis. Such items as report card marks, standardized test results, hobbies, experiences, and personality traits were mentioned by the pupils. A chart, listing the occupational values of various junior high-school subjects, was given to each pupil. Each was asked to circle the three broad job categories in which he was most interested and to cross out the three he least preferred. These were corrected and used during the individual interviews as broad general indicators of vocational interest.

#### *Second Meeting*

The pupils were next given a specially prepared handbook listing courses offered in the high school and describing the mechanics leading to graduation. Specific and detailed explanations of such terms as unit, sequence, and Regents were included. The counselor defined the terms and interpreted the course offerings in the high school. This was followed by a question-and-answer period. The pupils were additionally asked to work out with their parents a tentative ninth-grade plan on a form provided in the handbook.

### *Third Meeting*

At this time the counselor worked individually with each youngster, checking and correcting the plan sheets and collecting them. Where the counselor felt that the student's choices were not realistic, the student was asked to consider several possible alternate choices for further discussion during the individual interview.

*Testing.*—To further assist in program planning, each eighth-grade pupil was given an intelligence test and a mathematics fundamentals diagnostic. These tests supplemented an achievement battery in reading, language, and mathematics administered in the seventh grade.

*Parents Meeting.*—The program of group guidance was begun in early October. In mid-November, a meeting was scheduled for parents of eighth-grade students. In addition to receiving a personal letter of invitation, a squad of eighth-grade students personally telephoned each parent extending an invitation to the meeting. Local and regional newspapers carried announcements of the meeting. A panel was organized for the meeting, consisting of the building principal, assistant principal, guidance coordinator, and student council sponsor, with the eighth-grade counselor as moderator. It was decided that there would be no speeches, but that each panelist would be prepared, within certain specified areas, to answer questions from the floor.

Two hundred and fifty parents of a class of 300 students attended the meeting. As they entered the room, each parent was given a copy of the student handbook which had been used at the group guidance sessions. After welcoming statements by the principal and a member of the board of education, the moderator asked the parents to pretend they were at a group guidance session with the handbook as the basic tool. The counselor conducted this part of the meeting in the same manner as she had conducted the second group-guidance meeting, but asked the parents to hold their questions until the presentation was completed. The question-and-answer period lasted more than an hour with many pertinent points raised by the parents. Among them were:

1. Can business courses be given full credit for college entrance?
2. Has the school facilities for aptitude testing?
3. Can working parents schedule evening interviews?
4. Are college catalogues available at the school?
5. At what grade level will students be given information about vocational opportunities and projected needs for personnel in various fields?
6. What is the difference, if any, between the science courses necessary for preparation for a liberal arts college and those necessary for a scientific college?
7. If a student graduates with more than seventeen units will this be to his advantage in college entrance?
8. How much time should be spent in extracurricular activities?

The value of individual conferences was explained to the parents. Charts were posted around the room and the parents were asked to fill in their choice of day and time for their conference. Interviews were planned

from December through April at three-quarter hour intervals. More than 100 appointments were made that night. Additional appointments were completed by telephone or mail.

*Individual Interviews.*—During each interview, the pupil and his parents planned an initial listing of ninth- and tenth-year course selections plus extracurricular choices. At the same time a major sequence was selected and the courses for the full four years were planned on a separate card which was placed in the student's cumulative folder. This card was planned in pencil, with space for changes as the pupil progresses. The road which the student would travel, however, was clearly defined, even though certain changes might be made within these broad outlines.

Completion of the interviews by the end of April gave the administration sufficient time to prepare the ninth-year course offerings and study the projected needs of the next three years as indicated by the choices of these students.

#### CONCLUSION

The program has met with a tremendous degree of faculty, student, parent, and community support. Like professional educators, this community appears to be very much aware that the time has passed when just presenting information was sufficient. The sheer complexity of educational and vocational choice strongly points up the need for the student to see himself in terms of a total picture in order to choose realistically. Faculty members involved in this project have indicated their strong feelings that the best high-school education is obtained when students enroll in courses which they and their parents have selected carefully based on professional counseling.

An orientation and articulation program should have as its basic aim the mutual adjustment of the pupil to the school and the school to the pupil, and should provide guidance services and cooperative faculty planning to implement this aim. When such a program is available, a framework is provided within which every student can derive the maximum satisfaction from his educational experiences.

The orientation experiences described in this report are helping one school to proceed toward its ultimate goals. Further evaluation and experience will surely indicate its future values and suggest additional services which a guidance department can provide when it is encouraged to function effectively within the school it serves. Such encouragement has been plentiful at Plainview.

## Fostering Personal Development Through Literature

JOSEPH MERSAND

FRANCIS BACON in *Of Studies* (1597) offers an appropriate text for this paper: "Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready, and writing an exact man." English teachers in high school have long realized the importance of reading in the development of their students. If their results through the past few decades have not been commensurate with their efforts, it has certainly not been due to lack of good intentions. The English syllabus for the high schools of New York City, adopted in 1922 (which operated during my high-school days), states very clearly that: "The chief aim in the teaching of literature . . . is to get them to enjoy reading good literature and to desire to read more of it." Other things to be accomplished by the reading of literature were:

1. To deepen and enrich their imaginative and emotional life. The teacher should help the pupils to see their own lives and experiences reflected in the literature they read. He should in this way lead them to understand others and to arrive at a better understanding of themselves.
2. To cultivate high ideals of life and conduct.
3. To give a knowledge of books and the power to read them with appreciation.
4. To improve their power of self-expression by stimulating thought and by supplying information and models of construction.

These are noble objectives which many of us would consider valid today. Certainly, our curriculum makers of 1922 were interested in fostering personal development through literature. Whether these noble objectives were realized in whole or in part and by a large segment of the student body might make an interesting paper on another occasion. The matter of concern to us today is how we English teachers in the high schools of 1958 with their heterogeneous student populations, coming from diverse backgrounds, so different in capacities, needs, and interests can perform this all-important task. A few misconceptions must be cleared up before a positive program can be established.

1. We can no longer assume that students entering our high schools have the ability to read on their level. W. S. Gray<sup>1</sup> has stated that,

<sup>1</sup>W. S. Gray. "Is Yours an Effective Reading Program?" *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education*, February 1948, p. 47.

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"Scores made on reading tests show that from twenty-five to forty per cent of the pupils who enter high school are reading below the ninth-grade level."

2. A necessary corollary follows from the first. Teachers of English in high schools must stop bemoaning the situation mentioned above and blaming the teachers in the lower schools for failing to do their jobs. Rather they have the responsibility of maintaining the skills already acquired, providing remediation for skills undeveloped or underdeveloped, and guiding their students towards the mastery of the new reading skills necessary for high-school work.
3. The day of the "one-shot" classic is over. We cannot assign, if we have any insight into adolescent psychology and learning, the next thirty-five pages of *Silas Marner* or *A Tale of Two Cities* and expect a feverish search for the beauties of thought and expression of either George Eliot or Charles Dickens and any degree of growth—intellectual, emotional, or aesthetic from such a search.
4. We cannot afford blithely to ignore that individual differences with respect to reading are here to stay like sex, baseball, and taxes. For any teacher to ignore differences in reading abilities, in interests, in rate of growth, and in possibilities of growth is to be teaching truly in the pedagogical dark ages.
5. We cannot assume that growth will come automatically by exposure to literature even to enthusiastic, over-bubbling exposure on the part of the teacher. A favorite cliché of poetry teaching when I began my career in the 1930's was, "Poetry is caught—not taught." We want to be certain that what our students are catching are the right things about poetry and all other imaginative literature, not an aversion that will never be eradicated.
6. We cannot afford to cry defeat because of the onslaught of the mass media. Literature and development through literature have survived every holocaust since the burning of the library of Alexandria and will still be here long after the last TV antenna becomes only an object of historical interest. Rather than bemoan the impact of the mass media on our times in general and on our students' reading in particular, let us learn how to utilize them for our own advantage. All of the mass media—TV, radio, movies, magazines, and newspapers—have long had educational departments whose purpose is to demonstrate how these media can contribute to valid educational objectives.

By showing how these misconceptions can be corrected, we may arrive at a positive six-point program that will foster personal development through reading of literature and developing lifelong habits that will foster and continue this development.



### 1 & 2. Need for Secondary Reading Instruction

Accepting the fact that a large proportion of entering high-school students are deficient in reading when they enter, each teacher of English (and content subjects as well) must familiarize himself with the various ways of evaluating reading growth, the many reading skills subsumed under the term "reading," the techniques of providing remediation within the classroom and the teaching of the new and advanced skills that are now required. This implies in-service training for the multitudes of high-school teachers who have never taken a course in the teaching of reading or who have never even read a book on this subject. The field is now so rich that no high-school English teacher can honestly maintain that he doesn't know where to get the information. Now that the Bureau of Internal Revenue has rules that expenses incurred while attending courses for improvement of professional skills, are deductible for income-tax purposes, there may be larger numbers of high-school teachers attending reading institutes, summer workshops, etc. to learn something about the teaching of reading. The pages of such professional journals as *The Reading Teacher*, *The English Journal*, *The Journal of the N. E. A.*, and many others have a host of articles for those teachers who are genuinely interested. Let us stop complaining about the shortcomings of our colleagues in the lower echelons of the educational system, and do something ourselves about improving the situation.

### 3. The Passing of the Standard Classics

We must stop hoping that assigning a portion of a hallowed classic to every member of the class will either result in comprehension, appreciation, or any noticeable growth. The teacher of literature in high school today must abandon his reliance on a dozen or so major classics in English literature as a *modus operandi*. As Dora V. Smith<sup>2</sup> has cogently stated it: "... there is little place in high-school teaching today for the old approach to 'the novel' by having every pupil read the same book at a set pace of thirty-five pages a day. Some should finish such a novel in three days. Others lack the capacity to read beyond the second chapter."

This implies that the teacher must know a great many books on various reading levels and must know the interests and abilities of each of his students. Whereas one student might not be ready to appreciate *Silas Marner*, he may find much to interest him in such books as: Carroll's *As the Earth Turns*, Walker's *Winter Wheat*, Gale's *Friendship Village*, Grayson's *Great Possessions*, Emery's *Mountain Laurel*, and Best's *One-String Fiddle*.<sup>3</sup>

In New York City, to implement the new course of study in senior high schools, a reading list of hundreds of books pertaining to the dominant theme *The Self-Reliant Individual* has been issued to each ninth-grade

<sup>2</sup>Dora V. Smith. "How Literature Is Taught in the Secondary Schools of Today," *Journal of the N. E. A.*, April 1961, p. 286.

<sup>3</sup>Smith, *op. cit.*

teacher.<sup>4</sup> Similar reading lists and suggestions for integrated language arts activities will soon be issued to teachers in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades to illustrate the annual themes:

10th Year: The Individual as a Member of the Group

11th Year: The Individual and the American Heritage

12th Year: The Individual, Quest for Universal Values.<sup>5</sup>

Instead of building a literature course in senior high school on two classics a term, the teacher has a wealth of books both from the classics and contemporary authors to meet every taste, every stage of development, and every interest. The publishers of literature anthologies have given us fine examples of profusely illustrated, attractively printed, and intelligently edited compendiums of suitable materials for personal and social growth. Some of the following four-volume series certainly deserve careful study by our English teachers interested in fostering personal development:

Harcourt Brace's *Adventure Series*, Olympic Edition

Scott, Foresman's *America Reads*

Henry Holt's *Our Reading Heritage*

Houghton Mifflin's *Reading for Enjoyment*

Lippincott's *Reading for Life*

Ginn's *Good Reading*

Macmillan's *Literature*

American Book's *The Mastery of Reading*

Laidlaw's *Cultural Growth Through Reading*

Heath's *Conquest*

They not only will open new worlds for our students, but for many teachers as well. The thematic or unit approach followed in these anthologies (and such reading lists as supplied by the New York City schools) will go much further toward our objectives of personal growth than the careful analysis of a dozen standard classics.

#### 4. Meeting Individual Differences in Reading

Part of this misconception has already been corrected in the discussion of Point 3. If the teacher begins to realize that *Silas Marner* may be pleasure for some, but poison for others; that *Idylls of the King* will thrill some and chill others; that Burke's *Speech on Conciliation* may conciliate a few, but alienate the many; that *Much Ado about Nothing* may, alas, be taken quite literally by many in his class—then he has taken the first step on the long, hard road of recognizing individual differences within even the most homogeneously grouped class, and then doing something about them. Time does not permit me to summarize the studies made by the Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English on the provision for meeting individual differences in the teaching of

<sup>4</sup>Reading List for the Theme Center "The Self-Reliant Individual." New York 19: Curriculum Center, 130 West 55th Street.

<sup>5</sup>See *Curriculum and Materials*, Board of Education of the City of New York, Jan.-Feb. 1958 issue, p. 8.

literature. Reference must suffice at this time to Chapter 11 "The Challenge of Individual Differences" in *The English Language Arts*.<sup>6</sup>

The perceptive teacher who knows his students will understand which books out of the teeming multitudes on hand will contribute to Johnny's growth in understanding himself, to Mary's growth in sensitivity to poetry, to Henry's growth in understanding the ways of other people, to Loretta's growth in understanding her American Heritage. To all these and to other aspects of growth, books can contribute. The teacher should know them and know when best to bring the book and pupil together for maximum effect. For the alert English teacher in high school, his reading can never be said to end.<sup>7</sup>

Does this mean that we must lower our standards as we attempt to provide for individual differences? That we must accept a comic book version of *Macbeth* instead of the real thing? That we must permit the sordid paperbacks which are found in so many stationery stores in our large cities? The answer is decidedly in the negative on all counts. Providing for individual differences does not mean descending to the lowest common denominator. Like the reverse of Gresham's Law in Economics, good literature will eventually drive out trash. A perceptive and well-read teacher armed with a multitude of books of interest to teenagers is more than a match for the purveyors of paperback trash.<sup>8</sup>

### 5. *The Fallacy of Growth by Exposure*

If personal growth could be achieved by exposure alone, then our most developed young men would be attendants in library stacks or salesmen in bookstores. Exposure to good literature, alas, is not enough. More has probably been written on the methodology of teaching literature than in any other subject in the high-school curriculum. There are at least fifty textbooks on the teaching of English and almost every one has a substantial section devoted to literature. No teacher can honestly contend that he doesn't know where to get the information about teaching literature for personal growth. Many of the publishers of literature anthologies mentioned earlier also provide substantial teaching guides for each of the volumes. The Guidebooks to the Scott, Foresman series *American Reads* by such master teachers as William S. Gray, Robert C. Pooley, Irvin C. Poley, and others are over 300 pages in length and are in essence textbooks on how to stimulate growth through literature. Harcourt Brace's teachers manuals are likewise useful.<sup>9</sup>

Many teachers with the best intentions in the world fail to establish contact between the book taught and the student striving to grow up. Such an evanescent form as poetry has been particularly difficult to get

<sup>6</sup>*The English Language Arts*, New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, 1952, pp. 246-273; *The English Language Arts in Secondary School*, New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, 1956, pp. 123-159.

<sup>7</sup>Arthur H. Parsons, Jr. "The Teacher's Need To Read," *Journal of the N. E. A.*, March 1958, pp. 168-169.

<sup>8</sup>See the annual collections of *Books for the Teen-Agers* prepared by the New York Public Library, Fifth Avenue and 42nd Street, New York City.

<sup>9</sup>See also *They Will Read Literature*, a Portfolio of Tested Secondary-School Procedures, National Council of Teachers of English, 1955.

across. Commenting upon the contrasting ways of teaching Amy Lowell's "Lilacs," Dora V. Smith,<sup>10</sup> indicates: "The old way of teaching was to begin with characteristics of Amy Lowell's poetry and stories of how she smoked a cigar or with definitions of free verse, examples of which were then sought in books. The new way is to help students realize how effectively poetry reveals what he himself has seen and felt and to discover something of the technic the poet has used. Then each pupil can read more poems by himself, finding under the teachers' guidance what best meets his own need."

There is no royal road to knowledge, although Mr. Halliburton would contend for a royal road to romance. There are many roads—probably as many as the youth before us. Too many of us think that the road which we took, and which lead us to delight in literature is the one along which we must lead and more frequently pull or shove our youngsters. Just as we must ever be on the alert to read new (and old) books which we can utilize in our reading-literature program, so must we ever be experimenting with and reflecting over, and evaluating the results of new methods of guiding our students to the understanding, appreciation, and response to a work of literature. Once that right contact has been made, the pupil is never quite the same. Flaubert spoke of *le mot juste* in describing his search for the perfect word to express his ideas. The teacher of literature should also search for *le methode juste* (if I may coin the word) to achieve the results outlined above. This is the reverse of the old-fashioned question-phrasing and daily mark-giving which is so unhappily associated with the literature experiences we have all had several decades ago.

#### 6. Enlisting the Mass Media

Prophets of doom have been lamenting the effect of the mass media upon reading and reading habits of our population. At each stage, alert teachers of English have tried to utilize these media to strengthen their educational programs rather than attack them like Don Quixote's windmills. From Edgar Dale's *How To Read to a Newspaper*, to the N. C. T. E. volume *Radio and English Teaching*, and the N. C. T. E. volume *Using Periodicals*, and the current guides to such TV shows as *Twentieth Century*, *Hansel and Gretel* (April 27, 1958) and others, we have possessed many valuable procedures for utilizing each and all of the mass media. Rather than take away from reading time, many students have demonstrated that requests for books frequently rise when there has been a movie or TV version of a classic. The complete sellout of Stendhal's *Red and Black* after Floyd Zulli's lecture on *Sunrise Semester* is well known.

When such TV productions as *A Tale of Two Cities*, *Jane Eyre*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *Richard III*, *David Copperfield*, and other classics are produced live on TV or revived on film, the alert teacher can surely

<sup>10</sup>Dora V. Smith, *op. cit.*, p. 285.

capitalize on them in presenting the literature program. Thus by means of comparisons and contrasts between the mass media and the literary work being discussed, the teacher can open ever newer avenues toward that personal growth we have been stressing in this paper. No mass medium will ever take the place of reading, but it should be utilized profitably toward achieving the goal for which we are all striving. The novelty of a new medium wears off quickly. A love of literature which we instill lasts a lifetime.

#### SUMMARY

Fostering growth through literature depends on many factors: suitable instructional materials, effective methods of teaching, understanding the ways of growth of one's students, and the personality of the gifted teacher. No one of these factors by itself can work. It is the happy integration of all of these factors which contributes to the maximum growth of all of our youngsters. In the words of John Milton, "A good book is the precious life-blood of a master spirit, embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a Life beyond Life." It is our responsibility and heritage to make our students feel toward books as the poet did and grow in the process.

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#### A BI-LINGUAL WORLD IN 30 YEARS

American schools should teach modern foreign languages from the third grade through the twelfth, says a new U. S. Office of Education report. (And if you want more on that point, write to Marjorie C. Johnston, specialist for foreign languages, U. S. Office of Education, Washington.) But here's a different point of view:

What the world needs more than additional study of foreign languages is instruction in an international, universal language, which can be understood by all the peoples of this earth, says Mario Pei. American schools generally offer only Spanish, French, and German. The Soviet schools do better than ours—offering instruction in many Oriental tongues. But Dr. Pei reminds us that there are 2,796 languages; and one hundred of these are spoken by groups of one million to five hundred million. What can learning one or two or a dozen additional languages achieve against these facts of life? The answer according to Dr. Pei is contained in the title of his new book, *One Language for the World*. (Published by Devin-Adair, 291 p., \$5.) Mr. Pei does not care what language is chosen for his global medium of communication—it can be English, Russian, Esperanto, or Interlingua. "All languages are easy to those who learn them from childhood," Dr. Pei says. The important thing is to make a universal language compulsory in all schools. That will produce a bi-lingual world in thirty years. This may not bring about world peace, but should remove many of the rough spots in international relations which arise from lack of understanding.

## Characteristics of an Adequate Student Activities Program

JACK RODGERS

THE junior college administrator who is beginning a student activity program in his college, or one who is not satisfied with the progress of his present program, might consider the following suggestions for an adequate program of this type. Too much, usually, is expected of the student council. In some colleges it is expected not only to represent the college in extra-collegiate relations, but also to sponsor all school activities and, in some cases, all intramural activities.

A better plan, it seems, would be for the student council to assume the first obligation mentioned, that of extra-college relations, plus possibly a very few of the all-college activities which cannot be assumed by some other college organization. An example of this would be the promotion of Religious Emphasis Week on the campus, in the absence of a Ministerial Alliance organization. Another would be the sponsorship of college programs such as Senior Night, Senior Day, or a Career Day for Senior students of area high schools. Limiting activities of the council in this manner places it in a more dignified position in the eyes of members of the student body. Limiting such activities to a few assures more attention to them by council members, usually with much greater success for those undertaken. The Council becomes, under this plan, a "State Department" for the college.

Internal affairs for a college activity program could well be left to an organization not found on many junior college campuses. Such an organization might be called an Inter-Club Council and might well develop into an Interior Department for the college. Its membership should contain a representative from every active club and organization in the college, with these representatives being elected by the organizations themselves, and with the officers of the Inter-Club Council being elected from these representatives.

The duties of such an organization could be the control of the college activities calendar and the adoption of rules and regulations which the representatives of the organizations felt should apply to them. These regulations might apply to the chartering of new clubs and organizations, hours for social affairs, charges for admission to such entertainment, and the problems of discipline for an organization when this becomes necessary.

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Intramural programs need special attention and encouragement on the junior college campus if they are to survive and do as well as they should. An organization whose main purpose could be the encouragement of such a program would be an Athletic Council with a membership consisting of representatives from organizations participating in the intramural program. This council might well set the dates and schedules for the intra-mural competition, adopt eligibility rules for participants, and provide officials for contests.

Since these three organizations would have no overlapping duties, there would be no possibility for conflicts between them. Where there is already a well established student council in operation, and where the members of the council might feel that it is being relegated to a minor position, the Inter-Club Council and the Athletic Council could easily be established as committees attached to the existing student council without loss of purpose or efficiency for these two groups.

Clubs and organizations have already been mentioned. These are essential to a well-developed student activity program on the junior college campus. Most of the ones which may be found on the junior college campuses may be divided into six categories. First, there are the departmental organizations, sometimes referred to as pre-professional organizations. The names of such organizations usually leave little doubt as to their purpose. Some of these are: Pre-Engineering Club, Future Teachers of America, Press Club, Womens' Recreation Association, Science Club, International or Foreign Language Club, Drama or Thespian Club, English Club, Creative Writers, *etc.* The social science department often develops its organization around Town Hall lines. Some of these organizations may affiliate themselves with national or state organizations while some are developed merely at the local level.

The scholarship organization recognized as the official one for junior colleges by the American Association of Junior Colleges is Phi Theta Kappa. In order to use the title Phi Theta Kappa, the organization must be affiliated with the national organization. Such an organization may, of course, be developed at the local level under another name, but the junior college administrator will find that national affiliation will give purpose and direction to his own organization.

There are several of the organizations devoted to religious purposes which have become known on junior college campuses. Among these are the Baptist Student Union, the Wesleyan organization and others. Not found so often is the Ministerial Alliance, an organization composed of ministers already in service who might be taking work in the junior college as well as the younger pre-ministerial students.

Political organizations usually thrive during an election year and die out as quickly as they spring up. The two most common ones are the Young Democrats and the Young Republicans. These organizations are just as quickly forgotten by their parent organizations, the Democratic and Republican parties. Another group of organizations called, for the



want of a better name, "special interest," may include such clubs as a Rodeo Club, Circle K (Kiwanis International) Club, Ex-Service Men's Club, Shakespeare Club, etc.

Organizations whose sole purpose is social are not found on the junior college campuses in number as great as on the senior college campus. Usually these organizations undertake some special service to the college and its students and are encouraged to change their "hell week" activities to those of "help week" in which some special activity of benefit to the college is undertaken. Many of the organizations listed under the first five classifications include in their activities during the year one or more social affairs to which its members and other college students are invited.

The freshman and sophomore class organizations are an integral part of the activities program and election to an office in the class is second in importance, in the mind of the junior college student, to that of an office in the student council. This organization of the classes provides a place for the transaction of class business and the social affairs sponsored by the classes are usually the highlights of the year.

The business and social affairs of all the clubs and organizations should be carried on under certain well-defined principles. In the first place, the college dean should be recognized as the administrative officer responsible for the development of the program. With this responsibility must come the right of supervision either by the dean or by his faculty representative.

On the other hand, the students should be encouraged to manage the affairs of their organizations so that it does not become necessary for the dean or his representative to interfere unduly with the business and social affairs of the organization. The object of all student activities should be the growth of the teenager into an adult capable of self-restraint sufficient to enable him to carry on his affairs in the manner of an adult. Lucky is the junior college dean who has faculty members who can act as sponsors for these clubs and organizations and assist the students to achieve this growth painlessly, both to the student and the college.

In the second place, there should be a great enough variety of clubs and organizations that each serious minded junior college student can find at least one which will appeal to him and in which he can work with some degree of satisfaction to himself and benefit to the college. Certainly there will always be some students on the campus who are not serious minded, but fortunately they do not remain long. Often it is the dean or a faculty member who takes the initiative in the organization of a club, but, if the first few are planned well and serve a worth-while purpose, it will not be very long until the students will be coming to the dean or the Inter-Club Council for permission to begin a new organization which appeals to them or their friends.

Next, there should be a balance between organizations, a balance between those with serious purposes and those whose purpose might be solely social. There should be developed as soon as possible a balance

between the activities of any one organization so that even those with a serious objective might develop some social activities. Those organized solely for social purposes might be induced occasionally to undertake an activity with a more serious objective in mind.

There are certain general principles regarding the internal administration of all clubs and organizations and their relationship to the college itself which should be established early in the development of an activities program either by the dean himself or by the Inter-Club Council. A short course or workshop in parliamentary procedure should be held early in the school year for the benefit of the officers of the organizations and clubs. Such a course need not necessarily be very lengthy. Usually a few hours will be sufficient and only basic fundamentals of the subject are necessary to be taught or demonstrated. Complicated parliamentary problems seldom arise and when they do the faculty sponsor or organization parliamentarian can solve them without a great deal of difficulty. Incidentally, such a course or workshop is an excellent occasion to invite officers of student councils of neighboring high schools to the campus to participate in the benefits to be derived, thus serving as a valuable means of public relations.

Where possible, the organizations should be affiliated with national groups with similar objectives. Such an affiliation will give added purpose to the existence of the local group. Often very valuable program materials and guides are available to the local group as a result of the national affiliation.

It has already been pointed out indirectly that faculty sponsorship of each organization should be a first concern and the first requirement to be met prior to the granting of permission for the formation of a new organization. Wise faculty sponsorship often means the difference between success or failure. Successful sponsorship is as valuable to the college as successful classroom teaching. While this article is not being written with this in mind, the wise junior college administrator will consider successful sponsorship of a worth-while college organization worth an extra salary raise or a reduction of class assignment. The sponsor should keep the college dean acquainted with his organization, its problems, its successes, and its failures.

If the activities program is of any value to the college, it is worth taking time out of the college day in order to provide for meeting time for the clubs and organizations. Each organization should be provided time for at least two meetings each month on college time and on the college campus, and provisions made for necessary called meetings. Most junior colleges provide this time during an activity period when there are no curricular activities in progress. This period ranges in time from thirty to sixty minutes. A schedule which has been satisfactory in some colleges is that which provides a period on each Monday for the meetings of the student council, Inter-Club Council, and the Athletic Council. The meeting of these organizations held simultaneously precludes a

student holding dual membership in them. On Wednesdays the activity period may be set aside for class meetings one week and assembly the next. The Friday period may be set aside for meetings of the clubs, with each club being assured at least two meetings each month, or four if the membership desires that many. This precludes a student holding membership in more than two clubs and not more than one of the Councils. This limitation has proved to be desirable in some instances in preventing the over-ambitious student from over-extending his activities.

There should be some type of limitation on the amount of activity a junior college student may undertake. Often in the small college the able, popular, or willing student is called upon for many contributions of his time to the success of activities. The simplest solution of the problem is the adoption by the faculty or the Inter-Club Council of a merit point system. A system which has worked well in some colleges has been the limitation of a student to the earning of ten merit points, with key offices (presidencies and editorships) carrying six points, minor offices three points, and membership in organizations carrying one or two points. Thus one student may hold a key office, a minor office, and membership in a third organization. This limitation appears to be very liberal and allows the most able student sufficient opportunity for outlet for his ambitions and abilities.

Each organization should operate under a constitution and charter. Copies of the constitution and by-laws should be on file with the dean and the Inter-Club Council and the organization should be held strictly accountable for operating within the limitations set out in them. The charters should contain provisions for their revocation, either by the dean or the Inter-Club Council. Some colleges make quite an occasion of the presentation of the charter to a new organization, and its members are impressed with the seriousness of the occasion. A charter so presented seldom needs to be revoked.

Each organization should be required to keep an accurate set of minutes, a true record of the business transacted by the organization. These records should be checked periodically by the sponsor, the Inter-Club Council, and the dean. Such checking will impress upon the officers and membership of the organization the seriousness of their meetings and deliberations and the desirability of decorum in their meetings.

The financial affairs of all clubs and organizations should be handled in a business like manner. The most successful method, one recommended by some accrediting associations, is that of the handling of such affairs by the business office of the college. This involves the collection of funds by the club treasurer, turning in these funds to the business office and the receipting of the funds. It involves, as well, the requisitioning of the funds, after approval by the sponsor, and the payment of obligations by the business office. At the same time, the business office should supply club sponsors and officers with frequent reports on the status of their account.

There is also the problem of continuity of plans, projects, activities, and traditions from year to year. One plan for assuring this continuity involves the election of certain key officers before the close of the school year to serve the following year, with the election of minor officers being held in September. This plan gives the incoming freshman an opportunity to hold some of the offices, yet leaving the sophomore students in possession of positions of leadership, as well as insuring some continuity in plans and programs.

Finally, there is the ever present problem of obtaining adequate financing for the activity program. If an organization undertakes a program of any kind, it is usually necessary for funds to be raised in some way to pay the cost. Some colleges have adopted a plan which appears to solve the problem in a very satisfactory manner. The organizations are asked to turn in a budget to the business office along with the college departments at budget time. An amount is approved for their operation which may or may not be the amount requested. If additional funds are needed, in the opinion of the membership, they may be raised by assessment of dues or by approved fund raising projects, or both.

At the other extreme, each organization is expected to raise all the funds needed for their activities. Both these plans have some merit. It appears that if a small activity fee can be charged when the student registers and the funds divided among the organizations on the basis of need or membership, then the first plan has great merit. It is doubtful that income from regular sources such as tuition and tax funds should be used to finance all such activities.

If organizations are expected to raise all their own funds, care should be exercised in regulating the methods used and the amount to be raised. A continuous fund raising campaign in progress on the campus is just as distasteful to students as it is to people in off-campus life.

There are certain trips desirable for the student council, Phi Theta Kappa, and possibly other organizations, in which these organizations may represent the college at state or national meetings. Such representation for the college is just as desirable and necessary as representation in athletic competition. No junior college administrator would expect an athlete to pay his own expenses in representing his college in competition. Why ask the student council member to raise funds for his expenses to a state convention or to pay his own expenses? It appears that these trips should be financed from college funds. These suggestions might be summed up as follows:

1. The student council should be developed into an organization representing the college in all extra-college activities.
2. An Inter-Club Council should be developed as a control on internal problems relating to the conduct of the activity program.
3. An Athletic Council should be developed to sponsor and control intramural competition.
4. The college dean should be the administrative officer responsible for the over-all development of an activity program.

5. Each club or organization should have a faculty sponsor.
  6. Students should be given as much control of their activities as they give evidence of being able to assume in a satisfactory manner.
  7. There should be at least one club or organization whose purpose appeals to each student.
  8. There should be a balance between organizations in their purposes and activities.
  9. Officers of clubs and organizations should be given an opportunity early in the school year to become proficient in parliamentary procedure and the duties of their office.
  10. Where possible, clubs and organizations should be affiliated with national organizations.
  11. Provision should be made on the college schedule for meeting time for all organizations, with provisions for called meetings at other times when necessary and desirable.
  12. A system for limiting the amount of activity for the individual student should be adopted.
  13. Each organization should operate under a constitution and by-laws approved by the dean and the Inter-Club Council. A charter should be presented to an organization after approval of its constitution and by-laws.
  14. Each organization should keep an accurate set of minutes.
  15. Financial affairs for the activity program should be entrusted to the college business office.
  16. Certain key officers should be elected in the spring in order to insure continuity in club affairs, with the other officers being elected in September.
  17. An orderly, pre-conceived method of financing should be developed and adhered to in supporting the activities of the program.
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### INSTRUCTION MATERIALS

As a free service to teachers desiring a quick reference list of filmstrips coordinated with curriculum, the Jam Handy Organization is distributing its 1958-59 catalog. Listed are more than 700 class-tested filmstrips in 15 curriculum areas. These are indexed by grade level and subject areas. Techniques used in production are illustrated with specimens of individual frames. Some of the techniques are on-the-scene photography in color, art work in color, or combinations of both of these.

Space Age subjects are featured, extending through the grades and across subject areas. Included are the recently completed elementary science series on simple machines. There are basic experiments for understanding them. In music, new additions include opera and ballet stories and the instruments of the symphony orchestra. The social studies group has been expanded with a series on Australia, Indonesia, and the Philippines. In the same area, a new filmstrip is announced on the roots of our religious freedom. The catalog is available by writing to the Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11, Michigan.

## The Modern Concept of Brotherhood

HYMEN ALPERN

EVER since the term brotherhood received widespread attention in this country, there have been two interpretations. One is the melting pot idea popularized by Israel Zangwill. The melting pot concept, although enjoying initial popularity, has lost favor. The second concept permits unity-in-diversity thus making our country and the world safe for differences. Under this concept, brotherhood is sometimes compared to a rainbow, at other times to an orchestra.

We have observed the beauty of a rainbow. In it are all of the colors we know—yellow, orange, blue, red, and the rest—; but together they harmonize. So it must be with the races and creeds in our United States of America. Let us differ as we please, but we must not clash in hatred and intolerance; we must blend in love and goodness.

Another popular comparison is with the unity of the orchestra with its various choirs—the woodwinds, the strings, the brasses—all blending into the divine harmony of a symphony. The more varied the instruments, the better the orchestra. No player finds fault with the instrument used by another and each makes his individual contribution to the perfection of the melody. Just as in the symphony orchestra there is room for the melodious expression of all instruments, so in the symphony of peoples in our country and—yes—in the world there is room for the social expression of all peoples.

The modern concept is that brotherhood is not a mystic, a Messianic promise, a desire to *efface* differences, to deny the right of individuals to form groups of similarly minded clubs. It certainly does not advocate only one faith, only one system of education. It is not a plan for the formation of one vast family—brothers, sisters, uncles, nephews. It is, on the contrary, a plea for divergence, for multiplicity of ideals, for a variegated society. Yet, it says that, by all the evidences of science, all men *are* brothers, not only under the skin but *including* the skin; and, therefore, are entitled, not by sufferance, but by the law of consanguinity, to all the privileges and all the rights accorded to the inhabitants of our land. *It accepts differences, but rejects distinctions.*

It is a simple, practical brotherhood—fairness to all: Of course, there is more than that in the aims of Bnai Brith. There is love—the love of good brothers for one another. But that will come later. First understanding, first amelioration, first rights—these are the seeds. These, Bnai

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Brith scatters about the country. In time, love—the blossom. Let no one force love. Let no one beg for it. Let no one thunder it. Love must come quietly, unostentatiously.

Brotherhood is not a philosophic system. Brotherhood is a *direction*, and *direction* is the key to the treasury of life—direction for the individual, direction for the nation, direction for humanity. No question is more pertinent today than—"Whither, man?" Which path? What direction?

To the open-eyed, the nations of the world, including our own, have lost direction. We encircle the globe in less than two days, but how many more centuries will it require to *embrace* the globe? We are turning in mad circles, the gesture of imprisoned squirrels, not of free men.

When a mighty nation like ours threatens the existence of a tiny democracy that loves us and that upholds the freedoms we proclaim, in order to do homage and perpetuate slave-holding countries, have we the right direction? If, as an excuse, we say that in times of stress we would ally ourselves even with the devil to save ourselves, do we not know that sooner or later we shall have the devil to pay? And does not the devil demand the *soul*? Must the weak alone suffer the burden of morality, while the strong oppress?

*Direction.* But all roads lead to education. Education—what is it? For what purpose? For knowledge? For self-advancement? For quest of truth? For social amenities? For the sense of belonging? Should we destroy individuality, since individuality implies iconoclasm and possible defiance of the social order? Should we inculcate skepticism or dogmatism? Can we teach thinking? Will it lead to isolation? We mock the "egg-head"; is it a gentle mockery, or a mortal threat?

Many are the questions; many the answers, and every answer soon proliferates into newer questions. And the directions are many also, but like many rivers, they must always find their way into the vast sea—the sea of brotherhood.

In practical terms, what do we as teachers, particularly as high-school teachers do to urge the currents into the right direction, into the sea of brotherhood? When a youngster reaches high school, he is already a lusty sapling, whose soil is the home and whose roots are the economic, social, and religious milieu. Is the teacher, then, merely a helpless spectator, an impotent witness to the blossoming of prejudices, intolerances, and hatreds? If it were so, then we might as well—indeed might better—lock the gates and shut the books. But it is not so. The teacher can trim the leaves, saw off the rotten branches, spray the trunk, and, whatever the fruit, it would certainly be more wholesome and more beautiful. But more than that—a human being is not a tree, is not clay which hardens forever in childhood. The soul always retains some fluidity, and the patient and sensitive educator can help to shape and re-shape it.

The problem of improving intercultural relations is complex and difficult. Tolerance is not one-sided. The leper-pride of the discriminated must be toned down as well as the adamant snobbery of the one in



power. The teacher's job, therefore, is not to limit his educational work to a select few, but to all. The underlying principle guiding him should be that school life must present a pattern of behavior based upon spontaneous respect among children of different strains, and that a conscious attempt must be made to build up in each student an understanding and appreciation of the personalities, abilities, and ideals of fellow classmates.

Since it is generally agreed that character training is *caught* rather than *taught*, the educator and the school can best combat undesirable cultural attitudes by indirection. To have Negroes, for instance, eat in our lunchrooms, sit in our classes, play on our teams, without making any fuss about it, does far more good than making children conscious of a "Negro problem."

While education to develop cooperation among diverse racial elements should be incidental, it must not be accidental; a by-product of educational activity, true, but not a hit and miss proposition. A definite plan must be<sup>2</sup> outlined, specific goals set out, and the curriculum, the methodology, the activities of both faculty and students, in classrooms and out, all must be utilized, for the teaching of brotherhood should be a continuous process throughout the year.

The techniques to be employed will naturally vary. One thing we must not do is to indulge in glittering generalities and pious injunctions to the effect that intolerance is bad and that good boys and good girls are not guilty of it. Emphatic recitals of causes, wrongs, injustices, atrocities, and negative suggestions and admonitions may easily defeat their purposes. Campaigns for tolerance often magnify and emphasize situations to which adjustment may already have been made. There are children who are little or not at all troubled by racial differences until they are brought to their attention by such tactical errors. Our approach should therefore be a positive one, not a negative one.

That intercultural education will be most effective which leaves the students with the convictions and feelings that there are basic similarities in all peoples, that human beings are moved by the same fundamental forces, the same needs and wants, the same aspirations; that all societies have many resemblances, that life everywhere is marked by an overwhelming sameness in daily living, and only moments of unselfish idealism illuminate the drab monotony of human existence in all climes. Greater emphasis, then, should be placed upon similarities than upon differences. Stressing likenesses will decrease the instinctive fear of the unknown and its worst product—hatred.

Tolerance is the end result of a fusion of emotion and imagination. It can be trained to greater sensitiveness and generosity through art, especially such forms that call for group participation, choral speaking, singing, acting. In utilizing the emotional appeal, use should be made of the normal sympathy for the underdog. Any one of us may, in a given time and place, become the underdog. Indeed, it could be shown

that some day America can survive only if we all fight for the underdog now, so that some day there may be others who will fight for us—or better still, who will not need to fight for us.

It is our function as educators not to rely too strongly upon the emotional appeal. We must give due consideration to creating understanding as well as feeling. The high-school student's understanding will be advanced by hammering at the interdependence and of the need for hanging together for mutual security. In the final count, everyone is a member of a minority group of one kind or another, if only in a vocational or economic sense. Using this membership as an analogy, the individual can be made to understand the parallel with racial or religious minorities. It can readily be shown how profound is our ignorance of one another, and that ignorance begets misunderstanding, and misunderstanding begets hatred and intolerance, and hatred and intolerance beget only evil, which in the long run, is harmful to all.

In the entire educational program of improving intercultural relations, the teacher's role is of paramount importance. He himself must be free from prejudice and possess instincts that are thoroughly democratic. His concept of democracy must be functional rather than mechanistic. He must have such personality as will lead students to feel that he is a person of integrity and ideals.

We are at this moment at the crossroads of civilization; and, more than ever, the touchstone of a nation's greatness is not the jubilation of the majority, but the laments of the minorities. Only as these laments become echoes of far-off days will America achieve her full stature. Only as she eliminates the fictitious frontiers between man and man will she, at last, keep her rendezvous with destiny. And in this magnificent and perilous voyage, the teacher is not a mere passenger, but a pilot, resourceful, ever vigilant, undaunted. The direction is around the world—many nations—but One World.

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#### GUIDANCE FILM

A new guidance film, *I Choose Chemistry!*, is designed to stimulate interest in science by junior high-school students and to present career possibilities in chemistry and mathematics. Tom, a ninth-grade student, receives a chemistry set for his birthday and takes it to school. He and his classmates experiment with the set and are encouraged to learn more about chemistry. Talks with teachers, visits to the college chemistry lab, and trips to local industries help Tom to decide on a career in this field. He plans his high school and college classes accordingly, eventually graduates as a chemical engineer, and is offered a fine position. This 15-minute film is available in black and white at \$75 and in color at \$150. Purchase and rental prints may be obtained from Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Avenue., Hollywood. Further information may be obtained from Bailey Films, Inc.

## The Place of Debate in Modern Education

KIM GIFFIN  
and WILL LINKUGEL

A DEMOCRATIC society is a talking society. Rules and edicts are not arbitrarily laid down by a single despot or by any despotic group; rather, people in a democratic society try to "talk out" their problems. As a result of this, our present-day society places considerable emphasis on problem solving discussion and cooperative conference techniques. Whenever problems arise, the group, or, if it is too large, representatives of the group, sit down at the conference table and try to resolve their difficulties. The intelligent group will try to engage in sound, reflective thought. Perhaps they will follow John Dewey's five steps of reflective thinking:<sup>1</sup> "(1) a felt difficulty; (2) its location and definition; (3) suggestion of a possible solution; (4) development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion; (5) further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection. . . ."

In light of this emphasis on problem solving discussion, the question may be raised: does *debate* play a necessary role in our society? Debate as a technique in a democracy becomes a necessary tool when, in a discussion or conference situation, two opposing factions find themselves in diametric opposition. For one reason or another—vested interest, blind selfishness, or even perhaps differing but narrow views concerning a set of facts—two or more members of a group may take diametrically opposed positions on a question of either fact or policy.

Disagreement may occur at any time during the reflective thinking process: the "need" may be disputed; differences as to definition may arise; or the group may find it necessary to listen to some of its members debate the relative merits of a particular solution or course of action. In each case debate is a necessary tool.

In most cases the individuals concerned in the controversy are entirely sincere and honest. It is unrealistic to expect either side to change its point of view; moreover, they probably won't. The only solution is for both factions to agree to present their ideas to a third party (in most cases the rest of the group concerned) and also agree to abide by a vote of the majority of the group.

Debate by its very nature presumes a third party—the listener—who will make a judgment. Without this tool of a democracy, cooperative problem solving discussion would break down and the democratic process

<sup>1</sup>John Dewey, *How We Think*, (Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1910), p. 72.

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likewise. It might appear from the foregoing that the only time debate is important is when discussion breaks down. Perhaps this is theoretically true. Probably discussion is the ideal method. However, when you or your program is under attack, and when your request to meet your critic in an open discussion situation is refused, it would seem that the only alternative is to stand up and defend yourself.

Most American colleges as well as many high schools recognize the fact that debate plays an integral role in our society. They offer training in debate for students interested in self-improvement in oral argument. We raise this question: is this practice justified?

Modern educators are well aware that a sound academic program must be based upon clearly defined and worth-while objectives. In recent years numerous educational committees have released reports of what they considered to be sound educational objectives. For example, The Harvard Committee Report: *General Education in a Free Society* set up the following characteristics and abilities:<sup>2</sup>

1. To think effectively. Discernment of relationships and the drawing of sound conclusions.
2. To communicate thought. The simple skill of making one's ideas clear and cogent. This is of special importance to a democratic society.
3. To make relevant judgments. The ability to use old experiences in new problem situations as they arise.
4. To discriminate among values.

Though this is only one report, and there are many, the characteristics and abilities of sound educational objectives set up by this committee are probably as valid as any. We feel that our objectives in debate closely parallel the educational objectives of the above Harvard report. Our objectives of debating are to improve the student's ability to do the following things:

1. To speak well; that is, to have better "delivery," including good voice usage, appropriate bodily action, and a communicative attitude.
2. To analyze a topic-area as a whole, selecting a group of related issues.
3. To select logically defensible arguments which are related to a proposition.
4. To support these arguments with facts and authority.
5. To phrase these arguments and facts in clear and concise language.
6. To organize ideas in a clear and logical fashion, including those selected for refutation.
7. To perceive and to point out irrational, fallacious, or irrelevant arguments advanced by another speaker.
8. To develop the ability to think under "pressure." While the opponent is speaking, the debater has to analyze what is being said and to determine quickly what he is going to say in reply. Also when the debater delivers his reply, he is under pressure to "think on his feet." Although he may have prepared a rough plan of what he is going to say, he still needs to do considerable thinking on the platform.

<sup>2</sup>Harvard Committee Report: *General Education in a Free Society*, (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1946), p. 82.

9. To analyze the audience and the debate situation and to adapt his arguments and style of debating accordingly.

10. To encourage interest and discrimination in problems involving civic responsibility. The problems debaters usually consider are of wide social and political significance.

It is our opinion that the above objectives can best be fulfilled through a well-balanced program of tournament and audience debating. If the debater participates in *both* tournament and audience debates, he will receive training in *all* the aspects of rhetoric vital to persuasive and argumentative speaking.

In the tournament debate situation we are training future junior executives, sales managers, high-school superintendents, *etc.* to be able to go before their boards of directors, school boards, or whatever their decision-making group may be and effectively advocate a proposal—for example the expenditure of \$200,000 for a new sales campaign or the construction of a new high-school building. Such policy forming groups are much more interested in solid reasons backed by specific evidence than they are in a boyish smile, human interest stories, after-dinner jokes, or dramatic innuendoes.

Tournament debating as we know it puts a special premium on an integrated series of arguments (generally known as a "case") with each argument backed by pertinent and carefully documented data. A judge, trained to put emphasis where it belongs, provides a correlative for a serious-minded board of directors or a sincerely perplexed school board. If we can assume that such a judge is properly trained and well-qualified, no further audience should be necessary in the laboratory or practice situation.

Argumentative speaking with an emphasis on argument and evidence is not something useful only in the "intellectual sport" known as tournament debating; somewhere our junior executives, our city managers, high-school principals, hospital superintendents, and college presidents will do well to learn to be effective in the use of these skills.

We believe that a debater should debate both sides of the question. Debating both sides of a question broadens a student's outlook; it helps him to realize that *both* labor and management have legitimate claims for consideration in our economy. It is not uncommon to find a highly opinionated freshman debater fresh off the Kansas prairies; however, as the year wears on, such a debater usually becomes more discerning, more tolerant, more reasonable; and frequently he presses viewpoints which he qualifies more carefully. It would probably be well if some of our highly opinionated public officials would have to engage in such "role playing" from time to time, so that they might realize that there are two sides to a truly debatable question.

John Stuart Mill wrote: "He who knows only his own side of the case knows little of that." A good debater studies *both* sides of the topic and tries to discern or single out valid arguments and evidence on *each* side. He sees them most clearly when he is made to analyze and to present first

one and then the other side of the question. Aristotle thought being able to argue both sides of the question important enough to propose as one of four chief functions or uses of Rhetoric. He stated:<sup>3</sup> "We should be able to argue on either side of a question; not with a view to putting both sides into practice . . . but in order that no aspect of the case may escape us . . ."

It is important that the debater realizes what he is doing. He should know that he is trying to get the judge to say that he and his colleague did a better job of debating than the opposing team. No debater should kid himself into believing that he is trying to convince the judge to really "favor" either side of a complex national question. Rather the debater is trying to convince the judge that he and his colleague are doing *the better job of presenting the most valid arguments and evidence on one or the other side of a debatable issue*. In fact, he would do well to begin by pointing out this fact. He might say something like this: "It is my pleasure this afternoon to help my colleague present the most valid arguments and evidence on the affirmative side of the question of free trade." He might conclude by saying: "We have presented the affirmative side. No national leader, no man in public office, should decide whether or not he "favors" free trade until he has given careful and adequate consideration to the case for the affirmative as we have presented it."

Such statements would sum up what the debate speaker is really trying to do. If this is properly understood, then there is no question concerning the ethics of a debater presenting arguments in favor of adopting a policy of free trade one hour and the next hour turning around and presenting the opposite side. The debater is actually not advocating free trade nor opposing it; he is simply trying to present what he considers to be the most valid arguments on each side of the question.

One often hears the criticism that tournament debating fosters poor speech delivery—rapid-fire rate, monotonous pitch, *etc.* When such criticism is valid, it should be leveled at the individual debaters and their coaches who permit this practice, rather than at the system. It is pointless to indict college basketball just because some players are not champions. Perhaps the players have limited talent, or the coaches have not done a good job of coaching. The evil, if and whenever it exists, is not inherent.

Tournament debating means that one team wins and the other side loses. It fosters competition. It is true that a democratic society greatly depends on cooperation; nonetheless, its system of free enterprise is *quite* competitive. So rather than take the attitude that "no one should be a loser," we feel that it is a good thing for someone to learn fairly early in life that *there is such a thing as losing, but that, with effort, even a loser can bounce back and achieve a considerable amount of success.*

<sup>3</sup>*The Rhetoric of Aristotle*, Translated by Lane Cooper, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1896), p. 6.



We should not emphasize winning debates to the extent that we want to win above all else; our foremost emphasis should be placed on sound educational practices. The development of the student should be valued more than the judge's decision. However, we have never been able to find a substitute for a win-or-loss decision when it comes to motivating students to spend long hours in library research and debate practice.

Tournament debating is an efficient way of giving students sustained, repeated practice in oral argument. We believe that this sustained, repeated practice is essential in the development of important skills of argumentation. The debate teacher should give a fairly large number of students an opportunity to receive this training. Instead of concentrating all his efforts on one or two teams, he will do well to have a big traveling squad. The fourth and fifth teams may not win many tournaments, but training will be equally beneficial to them.

Audience debating should not be overlooked; rather, it should be an important part of the total debate program. Participation in debates before audiences is comparable to any speaking situation where an individual advocates an idea before an average group of people. The debater needs to analyze the audience and the debate situation and to adapt his arguments accordingly. Persuasive techniques as well as logical arguments need to be emphasized.

Audience debating is a healthy and valuable activity. But our experience with audience debating is that, unless tournament debating is included in the program, the student is not motivated enough to really "dig" on the topic. The debater is not an authority on the subject. He does not have the knowledge of the professor or the professional man. A student needs to do research. If the debater does nothing but audience debating, he will frequently rely on glittering generalities and emotional proof. If this happens, the debaters as well as the audience are largely wasting their time; neither will learn much. Our best audience debaters are generally those who do the best job in tournament debating.

Although modern man is not as interested in hearing debates as was his predecessor a generation or two ago, the director of debate can usually arrange a number of debates before various "captive" audiences such as service clubs. Every effort should be made to arrange such debates.

In a public debate situation where change of attitude on the part of listeners may actually occur because of the debater's arguments, we do not believe in asking a college or high-school debater to uphold a position which he does not personally favor. We think it is well in this case for a debater to argue his "beliefs."

Finally, in concluding our "case for debate," we believe that in addition to helping a person be a better advocate in public, debate training can also help him in his personal life. The Greek rhetorician Isocrates wrote in the *Antidosis*:<sup>4</sup> "... The same arguments which we use in per-

<sup>4</sup>Isocrates, *Antidosis* (With an English translation by George Norlin, in Isocrates, Vol. II. Loeb Classical Library, London, 1929.), p. 287.



suading others when we speak in public, we employ also when we deliberate in our thoughts; and, while we call eloquent those who are able to speak before a crowd, we regard as sage those who most skillfully debate their problems in their own minds."

It is a simple fact that life is a series of decisions. We are confronted with many "black or white" situations. Although idealists like to stay away from the black and white and talk about the gray in between (and we believe a person should always look for and analyze the gray before he makes a decision), it is still a fact that either we go to college or we don't; either we vote for a measure or against it; either we buy a new car or we don't. We can't half way purchase a new car; the seller wants to be paid in full.

Anyone who is trained to evaluate the valid arguments on both sides of a question and to sort out and weigh the evidence for the affirmative as well as for the negative should be able to make more rational judgments, or, paraphrasing Isocrates, to debate more skillfully his problems in his own mind.

Very few people who have taken up academic debate have regretted it. A few years back a member of the faculty at a state university conducted research in which he tried to discover what ex-debaters who had gone into law, sales and advertising, teaching, and some twenty-five other occupations said about college debating after being out in their various fields for a number of years: "More than ninety-five per cent believed that debating had given them help in their present occupation: ninety-three per cent stated that 'probably' and 'yes' they would advise any interested person to take debate."<sup>5</sup>

It is true that not all debaters achieve perfection in the practice of their art. It is also true that they do not all become champions. But as Aristotle said: "... it would be a paradox that there should be something disgraceful in the inability to defend oneself by bodily strength, and not in the inability to defend oneself by speech, when speech is more characteristic of man than the use of the body."<sup>6</sup>

We have occasionally heard the criticism that trained debaters may misuse their talents and take advantage of others—especially those who are less skilled in oral argument and critical thinking. However, we would like once more to turn to Aristotle, who goes on to say: "And if it is urged that the unjust use of this rhetorical faculty would be exceedingly mischievous to the world, this is a charge which may be brought against all good things, save virtue only, and most of all against the things of highest utility such as strength, health, riches, and military skill, which may all prove the greatest blessings in the hands of one who uses them with justice, and the greatest curses in the hands of one who uses them unjustly."

<sup>5</sup>Donald O. Olson, "An Evaluation of Debate," *The Gavel*, Vol. 30, pp. 31-34, January, 1948.

<sup>6</sup>*The Rhetoric of Aristotle*, Translated by J.E.C. Weir, M.A., (London: MacMillan and Company, 1896), p. 8.

# Make Johnny Run Better!

RAYMOND R. HUNTER

THE next time you look in upon your kindergarten youngsters ask yourself what kind of an educational program they will need during the next twelve years? What kind of a program would you want them to have if your own youngster were enrolled in the group? Will theirs be a program which simply teaches the 3 R's or will it simultaneously develop emotional stability and provide the confidence and security which comes through successful participation as a member of the "team."

Education in our public schools is faced with the task of molding happy, healthy, and competent citizens. In twelve brief years we must transform the kindergarten youngster into a high-school graduate who personifies total fitness for the responsibilities which he will face—a *total fitness* which includes:

- Ability to succeed in college or on the job selected
- Civic competency —the ability to contribute to community welfare
- Physical fitness —total health
- Social competency —the ability to get along with his fellowmen; to lead or to follow as the occasion demands
- Emotional control and stability

Physical education is limitless in the opportunities it provides for team and group participation. Its many activities demand both mental and physical exertion to a high degree. The immediate decision, the reflex act, the need for self-control when the score is tied and the umpire's decision is unfavorable, and the need to sacrifice individual glory for team honors can be found only in this program. The complete program in physical education will afford every youngster countless opportunities for the development of total fitness.

## WHAT IS PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Many administrators and parents think of the physical education program as a series of sports contests between schools. Unfortunately, in many communities a disproportionate share of the physical education budget, teacher-time, and facilities are allotted to the athletic program. While interschool athletics are vital to the physical education program, they are *only a part of it*. If physical education is to meet the needs of all pupils it will consist of:

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*Physical Education Classes.* Under this portion of the program all pupils are scheduled during the regular school day for instruction in activities ranging from simple calisthenics to field hockey or football. The intensity of the activities and the degree of difficulty here depend upon the age-growth level of pupils and the degree of skill they have achieved. The kinds of activities selected are the result of pupil interests, pupil needs, and the environment in which the school is located. A number of co-educational and recreational activities which may be pursued beyond the school years are included. Activities are modified for those pupils who are physically incapable of extensive or strenuous participation.

*Intramural Games and Club Activities.* These activities are conducted during the noon hour, during activity periods, after school, and sometimes on Saturdays and holidays. This phase of the program is voluntary. Intramural games are provided for pupils who are not members of the "varsity" or interschool athletic teams. The majority of pupils in any school are neither sufficiently skilled to become members of the "varsity" team nor have they attained the emotional and physical growth which these activities demand. Their enthusiasm for participation, however, is no less great. The intramural program satisfies this desire for participation. Both the intramural program and the physical education clubs such as the square dance group, the tumbling club, and the gym leaders club are open to all who wish to join.

*Adapted Physical Education.* Here we find activities especially adapted to a small percentage of pupils who have been found by the school physician or the family physician to have minor deviations from normal. These deviations may be in the nature of poor posture, obesity, flat feet, or poor muscle tonus. As a result of the annual examination, physicians are most careful to outline those kinds of activities in which pupils should not participate.

*Interschool Athletics.* This is the area of physical education which the public knows best. Among the more popular interschool activities are basketball, football, baseball, track, and swimming. Many others are to be found in a complete list. In New York State, for example, thirty-two separate activities are represented in the interschool program for high-school boys.

The interschool athletic program is designed primarily for boys in grades nine through twelve and the rules, regulations, and facilities used are closely related to the skills and physical capacities of boys in this age group. Attempts to provide highly organized, competitive athletics of a similar nature for elementary-school children, for junior high-school pupils, and for senior high-school girls are undesirable. Teachers and school administrators whose first concern is the welfare of pupils will not permit elementary- and junior high-school boys to be exposed to the emotional and physical strain of playing gladiator in the public arena. And

for high-school girls, interschool activities are adequately provided through invitation games and through sports days in seasonal activities.

#### WHAT CAN PHYSICAL EDUCATION DO?

The great variety of big muscle activities found in the program of physical education makes considerable contribution to *physical fitness*. Exercise increases the capacity of the body to perform work. The muscles of the extremities and the heart gain in strength and size and endurance through use. Regular and frequent exercise is the pacemaker for efficient operation of the body—the respiratory system works more efficiently, the circulatory system acquires greater power, the heart becomes stronger and waste products are eliminated faster. The individual who keeps fit increases his range for the fullness of living. In this era of the family station wagon, the magnetism of varied television programs, and push-button appliances to perform every chore, what parent does not recognize the need for planned physical activities for children?

Can physical education aid in the development of *self-confidence*, *courage*, *mental poise*, and *self-satisfaction*? A complete and well-integrated program provides youngsters with many opportunities for the development of these characteristics.

Have you ever watched the expression on the face of a seven-year-old who has finally learned to swim and can hardly wait to show Dad? Have you been so fortunate as to have been in the locker room after a substitute has scored the final basket to save a championship game? If so, you will know how much these little successes mean. Wholesome, healthy participation and the self-confidence which accompanies it mean much in the world of young people. The large number of team and individual games, the sharing of leadership, the appreciation of individual effort, and the many instances for restricting self in the interest of group or team give every boy and girl ample opportunity to guide and control emotional behavior.

*Social acceptance and social skills* are gained through physical education. I am certain that some of the greatest contributions made by this program are to be found here. Every parent wants his children to acquire such characteristics as tolerance, honesty, fair play, sportsmanship, leadership, and followship. These characteristics are developed in many ways. In a complete program, pupils will enjoy endless opportunities to keep score for intramural and varsity games, to select players for intramural and sports-day teams, to serve as captains and members of the leaders club, to share the playing time in scheduled games, to win honorably, and to lose gracefully. We hope, too, that they may be able to discriminate, in their after-school life, between those activities which constitute a *worthy and wholesome use of leisure time* and those which do not. In addition to the team sports, the junior and senior high-school program should provide basic instruction in tennis, golf, swimming, archery, handball, and similar activities which may be pursued and

enjoyed during the after-school years. We desire, further, that every child be as graceful and as coordinated as his natural talents permit. We want to see these qualities in evidence as he walks along the corridor or as he guides his first date across the ballroom floor.

Through physical activities pupils also learn much of individual differences and, thereby, much of the meaning of *tolerance*. Sam is too fat to run well, but he makes an excellent base for pyramids, so he's "one of the gang"—socially acceptable. Alice doesn't play basketball well, but her performance in the girls' class in modern dancing is admired by everyone and she, too, is accepted. A complete physical education program will contain sufficient activities so that each child may find that which he does well, likes to do, and through which he gains recognition and acceptance.

It is difficult to offer tangible proof that physical education contributes to *academic and vocational fitness*. It is evident to most parents and administrators, however, that the physically fit youngster who possesses organic and muscular stamina developed through sustained participation in activities geared to his physical needs, who possesses self-confidence engendered by social acceptance, and who exhibits a fair mastery of skills in physical activities is more secure in school than he might otherwise be. And with security comes increased learning ability.

#### WHAT IS NEEDED FOR A COMPLETE PROGRAM?

If physical education is to enjoy success in your school and community, it must be based upon the needs and interests of growing boys and girls. It must be a complete program designed by professionally trained personnel, planned to afford integration and continuity, and adapted to individual pupil differences. To emphasize one phase of the program at the expense of another is totally unfair to pupils and in most instances proves to be an unwise expenditure of the public tax dollar. It is the *total program which provides total fitness*.

Finally, we need competent teachers of physical education! Teachers who are fair and patient and who can properly interpret the program to pupils, parents, and administrators; teachers who exemplify in dress and in conduct the natural counselors, sometimes heroes and heroines, which children expect them to be; teachers who realize that their responsibilities also include the promotion of a subject which may not be as firmly established in their community as are *readin', writin', and arithmetic*. The growth and expansion of physical education in their school system will, in all probability, depend directly upon what they are willing to do for it and with it. Perhaps the best way to enlist greater public support for physical education is to provide as complete a program as possible in spite of poor facilities, meager supplies, and a limited budget. The work of good teachers does not go unnoticed by pupils and parents. Instead of simply "making Johnny run," let's provide the type of program which makes Johnny run better.

I am a parent. Most of my friends are parents. We are quite generally agreed that we want our children to be totally fit. We want them to attain some of the less-easy-to-measure qualities which make for total fitness. We hope that our boys and girls will walk down Main Street, U. S. A., with shoulders and head erect to face with confidence and courage the future they must shape. During the brief time they are in school, we want them to have enjoyed many opportunities to lead and to follow, to make decisions affecting the group, and to have earned respect as a member of the team regardless of the direction of the spotlight. We want them to be tolerant of the not-so-strong and the not-so-fortunate. We believe that a program of physical education, under administrators and teachers who understand the benefits to be derived from a complete program, will provide them with many of these qualities.

May we send our children to your school?

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#### COLLEGE BOARD SCORE REPORTS

Addressed primarily to secondary-school administrators, guidance officers, and teachers, this latest publication of the College Entrance Examination Board briefly describes scores obtained on the *College Board Scholastic Aptitude Test* and *Achievement Tests*—explaining which abilities they measure, and showing how scores are used by colleges, along with many other criteria, in considering applications for admission. Using the specific scores of a hypothetical student, the booklet shows what his chances of admission are at three typical (unnamed) colleges with different academic standards. Several charts and tables show the range of test scores received by freshmen at these three colleges, while other tables show the spread of scores for all boys and girls taking College Board tests.

Publication of *College Board Score Reports* coincides with a change in policy regarding the confidential nature of College Entrance Examination Board test scores. Until 1958, scores of seniors taking the tests for college admission were reported to schools and colleges on a confidential basis. The scores of juniors could, however, be revealed to candidates and parents for guidance purposes. Under the new policy all scores, both preliminary and final, can be released to enrolled students at the discretion of their schools and colleges. As in the past, the College Board will not report scores directly to candidates.

A companion leaflet, "Your College Board Scores," has been prepared by the Board to aid schools which wish to reveal the test scores to their students. The leaflet, which provides nontechnical information on the use of test scores in college admission, were distributed by the schools.

*College Board Score Reports* may be obtained from the College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, Box 592, Princeton, New Jersey, or Box 27896, Los Angeles 27, California, at 50 cents per copy.

## Building That Yearbook

FRANCIS L. ROSE

**P**ERHAPS one of the most difficult and perplexing problems in high school yearbook management is the continual drain that the theme and specials in the book can put on the creative side of an adviser. There is probably no adviser in the field that can come up with a winner year in and year out without a great deal of help from his staff or from the professionals. Because of this, many publishing companies have offered ready-made themes and division copy as added inducement to a "squeezed out" yearbook adviser. If you are willing to give your students an opportunity at creation, you will find that the pros are no longer needed and you will increase the quality of your book.

Several years ago we began to develop a staff planning system in Fremont High School. The process, now in its fourth year, is based on the scientific art of brainstorming; we call it piggy-back thinking. The title should in itself throw some light on the method that we use. We simply pile ideas on top of each other until something workable is developed. The process is really not difficult to get established. The danger, we have found, is over-development. The old adage that too many cooks spoil the broth can certainly not be thrown out the window entirely. Remember that you must always face up to a critical session and that someone will get squashed in the process. IT MAY BE YOU.

Before a person can begin to play the game, he must first develop the proper attitude towards another person's ideas. You must be able to accept these ideas as feasible, workable creations of an equal or superior mind. Probably one of the biggest blocks in the piggy-back system is the inability or unwillingness of an adviser to accept the idea of his student editor as something that is good and practicable. Yearbooks are student publications developed for and by students. If they are an honest production of student effort, a book cannot fail.

Our themes are almost entirely developed around "catch copy." The copy itself comes from the breadth of reading the primary staff members have done. Each time they run into a phrase that seems to be workable they jot it down and bring it to the piggy-back session. Such themes as the prize winning "I Am the Light," "In a Friendly Sort of Way," and "Reflections from Living" have developed out of the students' reading experience. The theme, "In a Friendly Sort of Way," was actually born during the surrender of the Japanese nation in Tokyo Bay when the protective fighter plane cover was given the instructions to shoot down anything that comes into the zone, but do it "in a friendly sort of way."

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Starting then with this one catch phrase, the staff will begin to dream and develop ideas to fit. What is more natural and common than a school's pride in its friendliness?

The physical surroundings must be conducive to creation. That is, they must allow a student an opportunity to relax and think. For this reason many of our sessions are conducted behind locked doors. Many are conducted in the quiet corner of a coffee shop or in someone's kitchen. We have found the surest way to smash an idea is for someone's boy friend to walk in at the wrong time.

By placing the editorial staff, our professional photographer, and the adviser together, putting an artist at the blackboard, and doing a lot of just plain dreaming about one-another's ideas, we are able to come up with a yearbook theme or special picture that takes a minimum amount of time and effort in development. The rules for playing the game are really quite simple. They go like this:

1. There should be not less than eight people and probably not more than twelve involved in any one session. If more are needed, split the group and run two sessions concurrently.

2. Everyone should enjoy a feeling of equal status and rank. This may be one of the most difficult things to accomplish. It means that an adviser has to be willing to wear two hats and put on either at a moment's notice. He must be a working member of the staff, but be willing to use the judicial power of a teacher when needed.

3. No attempt to evaluate an idea is made during a piggy-back.

4. If anyone attempts to cast a negative thought into the session, he is made a third of a ham for each no. When he is a whole ham, he is asked to leave the session.

5. The moderator is encouraged to keep his ideas to himself. His job is merely to keep the session operating and stir the kettle occasionally to keep it from boiling.

6. Free wheeling, not deep dark thinking, is encouraged for the moment of an idea.

7. Critical judgment is outlawed.

The session begins with one of the members, usually one who has been subtly primed by the adviser, throwing out an idea for discussion that they think would develop into a theme; then the fun begins. Each person is encouraged, at times even required, to contribute a developmental thought to the idea. There is no limit on the number of suggestions an individual can make. They add a picture idea that might fit, more "catch copy" that falls in line, minor changes in the original idea, or mood ideas that would develop the whole book. We accept anything—worth-while or not. Even the quips and jokes are recorded; you can never tell when and from where an idea will be born. As the ideas come bouncing in, they are taken down by a secretary or one member of the group designated as recorder. In many cases they are put together immediately by the staff artist. When the group seems to run dry or is temporarily out of ideas, the next person is asked to throw in his idea for a theme; then the

fun starts again. Regression in the development progress is not encouraged but is permitted at any time.

We use the piggy-back process even in planning our special pictures. It is here where the staff artist comes into play. Instead of a secretary, we place an artist at the blackboard with colored chalk. As the ideas come home, the artist adds them to the picture then being sketched at the board. A typical session of picture planning was developed last winter when we set up the pose and mood for our winter royalty—Merry Christmas and Happy New Year. Before, these shots have always been extremely formal charm sections; girls in strapless formals and boys in fitless sport coats. Through the process of brainstorming, we put these into what seems to be a more natural surrounding and costume. During a 7-degrees-below cold snap with ten inches of snow on the ground, someone idly remarked, "Isn't it pretty outside? It looks just like Christmas." In unison the group quipped, "Merry Christmas!" Someone else cheeped in "Why not?" We were on our way again. And indeed "why not." Why not put Merry Christmas and Happy New Year where they belong—in a winter wonderland of sparkling snow, faultless blue skies, and pine trees on a ski slope.

Since Fremont is located on the flattest part of the great plains of Nebraska, a ski slope was a little difficult to find—not only difficult; impossible. The group, without thought of the impossibility of finding a slope, began to develop a picture. Someone said "Its got to be dark to stand out against all that snow." Another contributed, "Who's got a red ski sweater?" "We want figures in the ski sweater." "Make the pants dark gray, John." "Put a scarf around her neck." "Anyone got any earmuffs?" "Where can we get skis?" "Who needs 'em, let's use a bob sled." All the while the artist was purring and scratching at the blackboard. In less than fifteen minutes, the finished product stood before an amazed staff.

The finished product was a boy and girl dressed in typical outdoor clothing—less coats—in the snow with a bob sled and a pine tree background. What is even more amazing is that here on the pool-table plains of Nebraska, we found such a scene. There wasn't a very long slope—about thirty feet—but that was George the photographer's job. By proper adjustment of the camera angle and all the technical falderal that only professional photographers know, we at least made it look like a ski slope.

As adviser, I could have sat down, put the queen in a typical formal and the king in a stiff white shirt reserved only for church and other momentous occasions, and taken a very typical studio picture with no one the wiser. Instead a group of students created as a group; sitting down for a period of at least fifteen minutes and forgetting all the petty jealousies that plague youngsters. For at least fifteen minutes not one had to watch that his buddy didn't get ahead of him or that, to earn an A, he'd better get back to something that I would like. They worked together; they molded their minds into a single creative unit to produce

something they could call their own. Perhaps that in itself is the most valuable experience these youngsters will get out of their high-school careers.

Piggy-back ideas are not always good or always complete on the first session. For that reason it generally takes two or three sessions—one to create the original plan and at least one the following day to evaluate the plan and to polish it. Many ideas are thrown completely away when the critical side of these young minds are finally unleashed on an idea. Many more withstand the storm and are published in May as pictures, themes, or copy.

The idea of piggy-back is certainly nothing new or unique to this high school or to the field of creation. The professional ad men have been using it for years in much the same manner. People have been using it for centuries in nearly all creative fields where collaboration is a necessity.

We probably have not discovered anything you don't know about the production of a yearbook, but it took us a number of years to discover it. All during these years, I wished many times that, if someone had developed a system to produce ideas, they would pass it on to me. For this reason I am offering this to you, just in case you, too, are still struggling for something new.

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#### HAZARDOUS OCCUPATIONS ORDERS AMENDED TO EXEMPT STUDENT LEARNERS

U. S. Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell announced that certain hazardous occupations orders have been amended, effective September 23, to exempt student learners enrolled in cooperative vocational training programs. These orders set an 18-year age minimum for employment in occupations declared by the Secretary to be hazardous for minors and are issued under the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The new amendments, affecting Orders Nos. 5, 8, and 12, permit 16- and 17-year-old student learners to work part time under specified safeguards in cooperative vocational education programs in industries using certain woodworking and metalworking machines. Order No. 5 covers woodworking machines and Order No. 8 metalworking machines. An exemption already applies to student learners working in some occupations covered by Order No. 12; this recent action extends this exemption to all occupations covered by that order. In addition, exemptions for apprentices, already in effect under these three orders, have been made uniform.

The orders were amended as the result of evidence and information received at a public hearing held in Washington, D. C., on June 17. The hearing was held after a study was made by the Department's Bureau of Labor Standards at the request of educators who believed that a limited exemption would step up development of vocational education courses. Copies of the revised orders may be obtained from the Department's Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, which enforce the law.

## A Course in Humanities

HOWARD HARRISON

TO the world of education, Sputnik was a welcome gadfly that stung Americans to a fearful realization that our civilization is in danger of being destroyed. Heard above the hysterical demand for immediate assembly line production of scientists and technicians, James R. Killian, Jr., new Presidential assistant for science and technology, was only one of many who pointed out that our present and future military strength depended on the success of schools in teaching the interdependence of the sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities.

The most gratifying change in public opinion has been the realization that democratically equal education does not mean the same education for all. We have learned that the Judaic-Christian concept of the equal worth of every human being is enriched and made powerful—not betrayed—by our schools applying Emerson's dictum: "We boil at different degrees."

The older experiments in the education of homogeneously grouped, intellectually gifted students, such as New York's Townsend Harris High School (now defunct), have been supplanted in recent years by local and state programs throughout the nation. The Talented Youth Project of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, the seminar courses in San Francisco high schools, the Major Work Program of the Cleveland elementary schools, the individualization of curriculum for all students in the Winnetka (Illinois) junior high-school grades, the Hunter College Elementary School in New York City, the Portland (Oregon) program, and the impending programs in California's Stanislaus County (of special interest to smaller and rural school districts), Los Angeles, and San Diego City schools are among the most significant current attempts to provide the United States with the cultural leadership necessary for our future existence.

Now that we know that we cannot "kill time without injuring eternity," we logically examine the school year itself. With this in mind, the public (seeing an increasing proportion of their taxes going to school plant construction and equipment) have, in many communities, successfully agitated for a twelve-month school year, divided into four quarters. After extensive trials, such as in Newark, New Jersey; Nashville, Tennessee; Omaha, Nebraska; and Amarillo, Texas; compulsory attendance during the summer quarter has been abandoned in practically all cases. It is the voluntary summer-school program that has gained most favor, although

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only about three hundred cities are listed in the United States Office of Education *Biennial Report* as having summer school.

As in the past, the overwhelmingly predominant reason for summer-school attendance is for remedial studies and the repeating of classes from which, for varied reasons, students were not promoted. While a number of the summer programs are broader in purpose and scope, the trend has been away from the academic toward programs similar to Florida's Minimum Foundation Program for Schools which is centered on physical well being, emphasizing the inculcation of love of nature. Similarly, Orinda, California, and Schenectady, New York, have broad summer programs of academic and non-academic courses.

However vital and enriching such uses of the summer months are, they alone do not adequately meet the challenge American education must continuously accept if it is to halt the cultural entropy, made more naked to intellectual vision by the fusion of atomic nuclei. We have finally learned the strange truth that, while technological achievement does not necessarily imply humanistic progress, science itself becomes stagnant when man's moral and cultural heritage is forgotten.

In the area of summer studies, an increasing number of innovations will undoubtedly profoundly influence educational theory and practice. Already publicized has been the Honors reading program of Rich Township (a suburb of Chicago). However, without fanfare, Long Beach (New York) City School District has just completed an experimental summer program, which, although involving but twenty high-school students, may be well in the vanguard of these innovations.

Emerging from a year of rigorous study in an eleventh-year honors class in American Literature, nineteen of the twenty-four fifteen and sixteen year olds in the group volunteered for a thirty-five-hour week (twenty hours of instruction and fifteen of preparation) Humanities class. This disposal of eight weeks of their ten-week summer vacation possibly reflected trust in their teacher, but, more probably, a doubt of their common sense (if not their sanity). Their only discernible reward was to be given credit for fourth-year English and admission into a college-level course in September, as part of the Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board. The ten girls and nine boys were joined by a tenth young man, a June 1958 graduate, whose only motivation (peculiarly shared by the other nineteen students) was a desire to be a more complete human being.

Who are these students? What did they let themselves in for? What were the effects of the course upon them? The twenty rank in intellectual capacity from very bright to superior. Although the academic and vocational interests of ten of them are centered in mathematics and science, all developed great interest in literature and writing during the previous school year. On the eleventh-year New York State English Regents Examination, the lowest grade was eighty-five per cent, the highest—ninety-seven (six of them achieved ninety-five or higher). Three

of these teenagers plan to major in English in college; four plan to teach. Three intend to major in the social sciences. All intend to go to a four-year liberal arts (or engineering) college.

Among the boys are two members of the varsity football team, two varsity tennis players, two varsity wrestlers, and one young man who is the mainstay of the basketball team. One of the girls is a high-school cheerleader. Nearly all of the girls and several of the boys are among the most popular young people in the social life of Long Beach teenagers. Not only did these young people—without exception—continue to enjoy the recreational and social opportunities of this summer resort community, but also twelve of them held part-time jobs during July and August. We are continually reminded of the truth of Plato's remark that "youth is the time for . . . extraordinary effort."

What Harold Alberty called the Culture-Epoch concept formed the philosophical basis for integrating the Humanities class. Humanism exposes the fallacy of historical demarcations. The best of Abbott and Costello's comic routines are closer to the French Moliere and the Roman Plautus than to George Gobel. Two and a half millenia are no barrier between the fierce determination of America's youth to maintain American freedom in the hydrogenated teeth of international communism and the indomitable courage of Aeschylus' Prometheus in maintaining his personal integrity—opposing even Zeus.

Only fragmentary success can result from the study of translated literature. The gestalt of the course was a total effort to define *man*. In order to succeed in adequately communicating to these young adults the great moral and aesthetic problems that have permeated the human fibre, music, art, and linguistics were integrated with the literature. Therefore, along with the teaching of literature, linguistics, and the integrating of the course that this writer performed, consultants in art and music were employed on a part-time basis. These men were chosen for their qualities as teachers and as creative individuals. The art instructor has an enviable record as a teacher, a portrait artist, and a designer. The music teacher had taught on the college level and been a clarinetist and conductor of a symphony orchestra. Each brought love, enthusiasm, and understanding to his work.

The physical and cultural resources of Long Beach and of nearby New York City were drawn upon. While the regular class meetings were held in the thirty- by fifty-foot air-conditioned auditorium of the local library (movable chairs and tables permitted a U shaped seating arrangement), individual tutorial meetings were held weekly with the coordinating teacher in the study of his home. The group frequently made use of the Long Beach Public Library art gallery. To hear special lectures at the United Nations, the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Carnegie World Peace Endowment building, and at other places, field trips were made. Films on Da Vinci and other artists and Gogol's *The Inspector General* were viewed at the Thalia Theatre in Manhattan. Audi-visual

aids, including high-fidelity equipment, were used in the classroom. In order to increase the reading speed of these already good readers, six rateometers were periodically made available for their use.

At the coordinating teacher's discretion, a small sum of money appropriated by the Board of Education was allocated as hardly more than token honorariums for seven visiting lecturers, most of them regular teachers in the high school. To be able to teach! Actually to teach what one has studied through desire! Even more . . . the wonder of having a group listen and ponder and ask!

Their instruction this summer will cause these youngsters to take academic excellence and honesty as requisite. They will be quick to recognize personal or scholarly inadequacy or hypocrisy. A salutary effect on their future classmates and teachers!

Five other lecturers (who gave of themselves only for love of the work), brilliant representatives of their national cultures (including Greece, Italy, Israel, and India), whose formal talks and informal conversations with the members of the Humanities class seared away the students' insular smugness with all their reading and learning—*Madame Bovary*, *Don Quixote*, *The Odyssey*, *The Rubaiyat*, *Oedipus the King*, *Ghosts*, *An Enemy of the People*, *Antigone*, *Miss Julie*, *Fathers and Sons*, *Cyrano de Bergerac*, and *Physician in Spite of Himself*, poems by Villon, Baudelaire, Verlaine, Hugo, Lope de Vega, Calderon de la Barca, Jimenez, Dante, Petrarca, Heine, Schiller, Rilke, Bunin, Sappho, Anacreon, Catullus, Horace, Virgil, Judah Ha-Levi, Tagore, Li Po, and others—there were a few of the essays such as Montaigne's "On the Art of Conversing," Schopenhauer's "On Thinking for Oneself," Mazzini's "The Duties of Man," and Kant's "A Good Will," stories, and excerpts, and some special explorations in depth:

- Problems in translating Classical Greek into English
- French and Spanish Verse Translation
- Hebrew philology
- History of the Printed Word
- Dante's *Inferno*
- Renaissance of French Romanticism
- The Rise of the Troubadour
- Golden Age of Spanish Literature
- Plato's Vision of Reality

And all this was support and the base for the surges of growth. Each young person explored some aspect of himself. Several emphasized the research, others the creative approach. Paul creatively, in fiction, explored "What is reality and what is fantasy? Why have men created gods; why has God created us?" Research in the history of musical notation was Alan's choice: "The human spirit wanted to share his sense of beauty and emotions . . . the development of the notational system follows closely the development of man's understanding of himself and his world." Ronald . . . the graduate in search of knowledge . . . combined research



and creative fiction to explore "Man's search for the perfect being." Ethel's original effort in fiction, dealing with an adolescent girl's decision to make her own mistakes, was shown by Sue and Gene and Ethel herself to transcend language and national boundaries in their Spanish, French, and Hebrew language adaptations. Caesar's legions and today's modern army are kin in their individual human traits, so Lynn and Susan showed in their project.

Anne's poetry questioned existence, memory, and death:

"And I watched the water of the sea  
Come swiftly up the beach to me . . .  
No swirling waves will wash away  
My dreams and thoughts of yesterday."

Roslyn's poetry rang with sincerity and vigorous youth as she questioned change itself:

"Always as before I asked  
to leave my bondage and my chains  
and free myself from mental fear  
to laugh and cry with all the world.

\* \* \* \* \*

For man must always sing for soul,  
so sing I do in poetry—  
crying chords and laughing chords  
till every note is breathing me!"

Martha's fiction echoed her discovery: "A blind conformist is not a person, but merely an instrument of the society in which he lives . . . he is a puppet."

Linda searched for maturity in her poetry:

"Far off, not even real to me, accounts of hunger, poverty,  
When just by chance, I casually glance at leisure through the printed page  
Where wave on wave of history, rising from that endless sea  
Of stricken faces, smash and rage, and *burst* upon my private stage . . ."

Brilliantly literate Bruce discovers "I must *do*, to *be*." In allegory, he says:

"Lotus' taste was on my tongue

\* \* \* \* \*

Lotus' beauty mine to hold . . .  
Will not Odysseus rescue me  
Or must I learn myself to flee?

\* \* \* \* \*

Hot dogs, hamburgers, and soft drinks were the culinary delicacies at the coordinating teacher's home the afternoon of August twenty-first. The intellectual delicacy was the presentation to the entire group of the essence of his project by each member of the class.

What of the future? The progressive Long Beach school administration already anticipates the healthful disturbance of "educational normality" the Humanities course has provoked. "How can we adjust to a regular school program?" my students half mournfully—half mockingly inquire. And they add, in perfect truth, "There has been a sense of completeness which in the school year is a feeling of fragmentation." "Would this be good for our children?" the community inquires.

The trial adoption of the "Stoddard Plan" by the Long Beach City School District elementary schools is another sure sign that there are some administrators, teachers, and parents who will theorize . . . but who will know when to act. This community knows that "the man who goes alone can start today, but he who travels with another must wait till that other is ready."

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### TEENAGE ATTITUDES ON CAREERS AND GUIDANCE

Post-Sputnik critics of a so-called "anti-scholar" attitude among high-school students had better take another look. For the overwhelming majority of American teenagers respect and admire thorough scholarship. This encouraging fact was brought out by the Institute of Student Opinion, which has just completed a survey on careers and attitudes — the largest national representative probability sample survey ever undertaken in the United States. Sponsored by Scholastic Magazines, Inc., the Institute has been conducting surveys on the attitudes of American secondary-school students for fifteen years. American teenagers, the survey demonstrated, share these attitudes:

- \* Ninety per cent of them think good school marks are "important" to their futures — less than one per cent consider them "a disadvantage."

- \* Eight out of every ten say "hard word," "intelligence," and "personality" will have the greatest effect on their careers — much greater than "good or bad breaks," "money," or "influential friends or relatives."

- \* Half of them are "fairly sure" what their final careers will be — one eighth are "absolutely certain."

- \* Engineering is the most popular career with boys, followed by the armed forces and science. Girls rate secretarial work the most desirable, with medicine (including nursing) second, and teaching third.

- \* Among the twenty per cent who are "interested in working for a large, nationally known company," General Electric and General Motors are the favorites.

These results were among those obtained from answers given by 11,416 scientifically selected students in grades 7 through 12 ranging in age from 11 to 19. The nation-wide survey was conducted in a total of 284 junior and senior high schools, public and private, in every state in the country. Schools of all sizes, with enrollments from 42 to over 4,000, were included in the sample. Approximately 95 per cent of the students replied to each question.

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# The Book Column

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## Professional Books

BAKER, C. H. *A Friend in Power*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 318 pp., \$3.95. The scene of this novel is a university town somewhere within the radius of New York City. The action revolves around the search for a new university president to replace the man who is resigning after thirty years of unselfish devotion to the job. The university board of trustees which is charged with finding the right man has asked that a faculty advisory committee be formed to assist them in their task. The reader sees the year-long search and its administration through the eyes of one of the members of this faculty committee.

The book consists of nine chapters, each of which deals with one-month's events beginning with October and ending with June when a new president is finally chosen. Day to day university life is clearly delineated with all of its problems, frustrations, and satisfactions. We see the inner workings of a committee of unselfish, sincere men trying to do well a somewhat thankless and time-consuming job. We learn what a university needs in the way of top administrators and why some men measure up to those standards and why some are discarded.

BINSTOCK, LOUIS. *The Road to Successful Living*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 319 pp., \$3.95. Most of us go through life without drawing on even a small fraction of the happiness within our reach. How we can tap this "hidden fortune" and enjoy it ourselves and with the ones we love is set forth by a wise and inspiring spiritual leader who has spent a lifetime counseling troubled men and women of all faiths. Dr. Binstock shows us how successful living can be achieved.

1. *By getting on the right track*. Many of us toil through the years only to discover, too late, that we are on the wrong road, that we have misunderstood our own dreams and desires. This book helps you pause now and find out, by self-examination, what it is you really want, materially and spiritually—and what to do about it.

2. *By getting rid of the single greatest obstacle to happiness*. Almost all of us carry on our shoulders, like an invisible bag of stones, the fear of failure. It is an almost universal burden in the modern world. Dr. Binstock shows how we can shed or at least lighten this exhausting weight.

3. *By making use of our hidden inner reserves*. How ironic that a man should go hungry when, all unknown to himself, he has somewhere, in his name, a limitless bank account. Yet most of us do just this—work and worry without ever drawing on our own priceless inner resources of courage, imagination, skill, and energy. This book shows you how to find your hidden "spiritual bank account" and draw on it.

Dr. Binstock's appraisal is luminous, specific, and forthright—and his message is so teeming with "applicability" that the reader can put it to effective use immediately. He shows you how the ways to happiness can be implemented in your personal, business, or professional life. He shows how our attitudes

toward success and failure affect us in our careers, our homes, our community. He provides revealing insights into the marriage relationship, the rearing of children, the roles played by education, religion, and science in our daily lives. He examines the problems, the challenges and the rewards of youth, maturity, and old age. He shows how, through self-knowledge, we can attain confidence, serenity, and fulfillment.

CHASE, F. S., and H. A. ANDERSON, editors. *The High School in a New Era*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue. 1958. 479 pp., \$5.75. Since the turn of the century, man's revolutionary applications of science and technology have moved him rapidly into a new era, where he stands on the threshold of an uncertain yet demanding future. At the same time, education—the process through which men assimilate their culture and arm themselves with knowledge for the future—has not kept pace with the challenges of modern science. America's schools—its high schools in particular—must change radically if they are to meet the needs of our epoch in history and prepare our young people for life in a scientific and constantly changing age.

In this book (based on the papers presented to a 1957 conference sponsored by the University of Chicago in collaboration with the National Citizens Council for Better Schools), thirty-eight prominent educators and laymen consider the high schools, the new challenges they face, and their capacity for meeting the demands of a new era. Many dynamic, thinking people have lent their resources to this important symposium. This is a book for anyone concerned with the crucial issues facing education and educators today.

*Family Life Education Resource Guide*. New York 19: American Social Hygiene Association, 1790 Broadway. 1958. 116 pp., \$1. Forty Teachers and parents of the Roanoke City Public Schools of Roanoke, Virginia, under the direction of Mrs. Elizabeth S. Force and with the sponsorship of the American Social Hygiene Association, have produced this useful book for the busy teacher. Hundreds of tested activities, a specimen unit and bibliographies of books, pamphlets, films, filmstrips, and recordings are included. The book is set up on a chart basis with three divisions—fundamental learnings, suggested activities, and resource. Teachers, supervisors, and administrators will find this guide of great value as a source of suggested classroom activities, as the basis for inservice programs and as a curriculum planning aid. This is the Central Atlantic In-service project on Education for Personal and Family Living.

GRAN, J. M. *How To Understand and Teach Teen-agers*. Minneapolis 15: T. S. Denison and Company, 321 Fifth Avenue S. 1958. 229 pp., \$3.95. It has been said that the teenager is frequently misunderstood by his parents and teachers. Many of the problems arising in the home and school occur because of frictions and misunderstandings that could have been averted if there had been an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of each other's point of view. As is many times the case, difficulties of discipline arise to plague the participants.

In this book, the author endeavors to show as well as to tell how to understand and teach teenagers. For this reason, narratives, episodes, anecdotes, and other illustrative material, drawn from actual experience, abound on its pages. Because the book is intended for parents as well as for teachers, it is written in everyday language, free from educational terms. For the same reason, no attempt is made to be profound or exhaustive in the treatment of

topics. The single purpose of the book is to be helpful to parents and teachers in meeting the problem of dealing with the teenager. Nothing has been included that is not authentic. In short, the book is chiefly a graphic statement of what one individual found to be true, workable, successful and satisfying during the twenty-five years he has served, first as a teacher and then as a principal, in two junior high schools and three senior high schools.

GROSS, NEAL. *Who Runs Our Schools*. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 440 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 211 pp. This book deals with a number of important questions about the public schools. Its purpose is to report a body of information that bears on these questions derived from lengthy and confidential interviews with approximately 50% of the school superintendents in Massachusetts and their school board members. The findings to be reported imply a series of problems of the public schools whose solution requires public awareness and action on the part of parents, citizens, school board members, school administrators and teachers, the higher institutions of learning—of all those who are in any way concerned with public education in our society.

This book is one of several publications that have reported or will report the findings of the School Executive Studies, a research program initiated at Harvard University in 1952. In contrast to other publications of the Studies that have focused on theoretical social science questions, this book deals with problems that have a direct bearing on the schools. It has been written for fellow citizens and educators, rather than for fellow social scientists. It is for this reason that many of the statistical analyses that support the findings and recommendations are placed in the appendices rather than in the text. Readers who have a grasp of elementary statistical tools and who are interested in the detailed research findings are urged to examine the statistical analyses presented in the appendices, as well as the tables presented in the text. In view of the audience for which the book is intended, the author has felt it advisable to minimize the number of qualifications and reservations that would be required in a technical social science monograph. He has also felt that the intelligent layman interested in public education would find a critical appraisal of the literature pertinent to the questions treated in this book more of a distraction than a help. It should be noted, however, that a selected bibliography on the superintendent and school board has been included in this book.

LARRICK, NANCY. *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc. 1958. 283 pp., \$2.95. In this book, the author, a former classroom teacher and president of the International Reading Association, answers questions concerning how parents can help improve their children's reading. This easy-to-read handbook "gives day-to-day suggestions that are practical, stimulating, and thoroughly enjoyable. One of its most valuable features is a descriptive list of favorite books for children, with suggestions for building a home library.

MAGNIFICO, L. X. *Education for the Exceptional Child*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, 119 West 40th Street. 1958. 381 pp. The author is concerned with the general problem of special education for the gifted pupil and for the physically, socially, and mentally handicapped child. He covers the matter of identifying ability and disability, the methods most useful for improving the quality of education, and procedures for sound administration of special education programs.

MILLER, VAN, AND W. B. SPALDING. *The Public Administration of American Schools*, second edition. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. 1958. 622 pp., \$5.50.

Like the earlier (1952) edition, the present volume is organized around a definition of administration as the making and execution of decisions; it treats school administration as the responsibility of the total citizenry; it deals with administration, and with the relations that the various administrative positions bear to each other in the over-all process, rather than with isolated positions. In the present edition the emphasis remains on educational administration rather than on specific administrative techniques. However, the basic procedures are clearly stated and well illustrated with practical applications so that techniques for their implementation may be readily developed. The book shows how the work of various kinds of administrators is cooperative and related, how positions of administrative service are subject to development and change.

The authors contend that recent studies in school administration point up the importance of considering decision making and execution not only within the institutional organization of the school, but also in relation to the broad political legal structure and the informal social pressures of groups and individuals. The definition of school administration as the making and execution of decisions, discussed in considerable detail in Chapter 8, provides a unifying thread for the study of all aspects and tasks pertaining to the organization and operation of schools. It provides a logical basis for integrating the relationships that exist among individual members of the community, board members, pupil, parents, teachers, and other school employees, and administrators.

Discussions of specific topics have been modified to reflect important changes reported in newspapers, magazines, and journals. The effects of labor, business, taxpayer, accrediting, religious, patriotic, professional, and governmental groups upon the development of education are discussed at length. The authors have provided much new source material to show the various positions of these groups in relation to basic educational issues.

Attention is given to the vast extension of developmental studies of school administration and to recent contributions to the field which have been stimulated by the new and vigorous interest in educational administration; e.g., the work of the University Council on Educational Administration, the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, and the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration. All figures have been brought up to date and chapter bibliographies have been substantially revised. While this new edition should find wide use as a textbook for general educational administration courses, it also offers much of value to the practicing administrator, the school board member, and others concerned about the administration of America's public schools.

MITCHUM, P. M. *The High School Principal and Staff Plan for Program Improvement*. New York 27: Columbia University, 2960 Broadway. 1958. 111 pp. In this book, the author describes a procedure which has proved successful. It was derived from daily practice in the field and from the findings of recent as well as long-established researches. The result will be of direct help to faculties and administrators who face the constant challenges of making meaningful the program of learning for modern American youth.

Dr. Mitchum writes against a background of success as a classroom teacher, a school principal, and a central office administrator whose major responsibility is the developing program of instruction of a school system. His ex-

perience has been distinguished by his remarkable ability to draw upon the best products of planned research and apply them to the daily problems of the teaching profession. Thus, here is a monograph of substance, designed to help devoted teachers and administrators improve their skills in accomplishing the fundamental task of the profession through continuous cooperative study of the program of youth education which they develop.

PARODY, O. F. *The High School Principal and Staff Deal with Discipline*. New York 27: Columbia University, 2906 Broadway. 1958. 103 pp. This monograph deals with a positive approach to the problems that youth face as they learn increasingly adult patterns of behavior. Discipline, in both lay and professional usage, implies behavior and its control. When large numbers of learning youth are assembled within a school setting, the problems of individual and group behavior are frequently multiplied, and the magnitude of the task of guiding young people into socially acceptable patterns of behavior is greatly increased. The resultant challenge to the teachers and administrators is too well known to justify elaboration.

Yet this is serious business of a high degree of importance. Skills of many kinds are needed, and a degree of objectivity required which those who look at the tasks of the teacher superficially will frequently miss. The development of self-discipline on the part of the learner requires both art and science on the part of those who teach.

Dr. Parody has drawn upon experience and study to develop a program for a fictional junior high school. The material which he presents is as pertinent for older youth and the faculties of senior high schools. The stress that he places upon the responsibilities of the administrator is obvious, for it is in the relationships between the "front office" and the faculty of many schools that the most serious misunderstandings may develop and the greatest blocks to a positive morale and effective program of instruction may occur. This is a program for leadership, for professional growth, for cooperation on a high level. It will not appeal to those who believe that external force is superior to personal integrity, nor to those who believe that the sole task of the teacher is to insure the mastery of subject matter on the part of the learner.

PRESTWOOD, E. L. *The High School Principal and Staff Work Together*. New York 27: Columbia University, 2960 Broadway. 1957. 104 pp. The modern school principal is no professional isolate, confined to desk work in an office and issuing directives to a loyal group of obedient workers. Rather, he is first and foremost an expert in encouraging people to do their best in accomplishing the difficult tasks of the school. This is not a simple duty; it requires great courage, skill, and devotion.

Within the past few years much impressive research has been done on the nature of leadership, and in particular leadership within the field of education. Although much remains to be done, an encouraging backlog of information has been recorded in numerous documents and formal reports. Too often, however, these writings are not directly focused on the immediate and urgent requirements of the work to be done in a given setting; too often the interrelationships of many good studies are not clearly established.

The author has drawn upon his own high competence as a scholar in this field, as well as upon his experience as a teacher and practicing administrator. He presents an informed and practical approach to the solution of many problems which challenge all who work together in our secondary schools—problems which are critical to the success of the schools, problems which are



of fundamental concern to sincere, creative, and intelligent people who recognize teaching as a profession rather than a job. These are the problems of people who will to work together in a climate consistent with the goals of American education.

SECHREST, C. A. *New Dimensions in Counseling Students*. New York 27: Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway. 1958. 127 pp., \$3. One of the major problems faced by the school counselor grows out of failure to understand the implications of the setting in which he works. Because the counseling takes place in an educational setting, its purpose should also be educational.

The case method of learning, as used in this book, is particularly applicable to the field of counseling. Through the use of the cases, it is possible for the reader to identify himself with the counselors, without being exposed to the discomforts and hazards of actual problem situations. In helping the counselor to develop his own approach to counseling, the book does not attempt to give him the one right answer, but rather to help him to think through the process of finding an answer, for himself. Problem-centered, the book also deals with counselor feelings.

SUTTLES, P. H., editor. *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*. Randolph, Wisconsin: Educators Progress Service. 1958. 333 pp., \$6.50. This volume replaces all preceding editions. Limiting the content of the guide to about 1,200 titles, and using less than 50% of the available acceptable listings, together combine to make the materials listed in this edition most highly selective. Every title has been rechecked for availability, nature, and content of listing, distribution conditions, and educational value. This edition lists 1,255 items, of which 525, or 41.8%, are new. All new titles are available from 502 sources, of which 101 are new this year. The units have been set up in a separate booklet for convenient reference.

This guide is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of selected maps, bulletins, pamphlets, exhibits, charts, and books. It brings the compiled information on this vast array of worth-while educational materials within the covers of a single book for immediate use. This annual edition is a professional cyclopedic service, on free learning aids. Educators from coast to coast suggest many stimulating experiences and creative activities in the use of selected free materials. Dr. John Guy Fowlkes writes another inspirational article, "Educating All of the Children." The unit writers offer a wealth of new and timely teaching suggestions. A section of the book, "Teacher Reference and Professional Growth Materials," contains a wealth of aids for the alert teacher in guiding and directing the doing and thinking of the boys and girls in today's classroom.

The guide is more than a useful tool to schools. It is a valuable stimulus to the acquisition of curriculum laboratory-library materials, timely as well as up-to-date. Moreover, it offers a challenge to all educators to keep the curriculum in close contact with contemporary life. Included also is a 29-page booklet entitled "Units on Free Materials." It outlines seven units of study incorporating materials listed in the *Guide*.

TERMAN, SIBYL, and C. C. WALCUTT. *Reading: Chaos and Cure*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book company, Inc., 330 West 42nd Street. 1958. 297 pp., \$4.75. This book is more than a probing analysis of why our students today suffer reading handicaps—often reading two and three years below their school level. The authors have outlined a simple program which will reduce reading failure in the schools within one year. Based on their years of ex-

perience in this field as remedial-reading specialist and professor of English, the authors advocate an application of the phonics method as opposed to the "reading readiness" and "word configuration." They include at the end of the book a complete phonics manual for instruction at home or at school.

### Books for Teacher-Pupil Use

ACKER, HELEN. *Lee Natoni: Young Navajo*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 404 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 136 pp., \$2.75. In this book Miss Acker is mainly concerned with a Navajo family and their way of life, and with contrasting the old and the new, the Indian's way and white man's way. She tells a warm, human story about Lee Natoni, a Navajo boy who yearns for a white man's education although he recognizes the things that are beautiful in the Indian tradition, and about old Allesandro Begay, the medicine man who resists everything new until something happens to change his mind.

ADRIAN, MARY. *Jonathan Crow, Detective*. New York 22: Hastings House, 151 E. 50th Street. 1958. 126 pp., \$2.75. The meadow and woodlands looked peaceful and serene but many of the animals were upset because of strange happenings they could not understand. Who could explain these things to them? They decided on Jonathan Crow, the wisest of the crows and the leading character in this book of nature stories. Each one solves a different "mystery" which is an actual natural phenomenon. The stories are exciting and informative all the way through, and accurate in all the facts presented.

ALDERMAN, C. L. *Joseph Brant, Chief of the Six Nations*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1958. 192 pp., \$2.95. A fierce warrior in battle, a brilliant statesman in peace, Joseph Brant, who was not a hereditary chief, displayed all of the qualities of leadership that led to his selection as Chief of the Six Nations. He foresaw disaster in disunity and worked for a federation of American Indians, which could have stemmed the tide of white expansion and changed the course of our history.

Brant's background was mysterious. His father was said to be an English nobleman, but his mother was Indian and he grew up with her tribe in the Mohawk Valley. Joseph's initial test of courage came during the French and Indian Wars. Though only thirteen, he was already a full-fledged brave. "Another test will come," British General William Johnson told him. "The test of leadership." At the Battle of Niagara he turned defeat into victory, and passed the test of leadership.

Johnson sent him to school where he learned the white man's methods of agriculture and the English language which later served him as translator and diplomat. When Chief Pontiac threatened to drive all white settlers from North America, Brant was chosen for dangerous and difficult peace missions—and passed the test of statesmanship. As Chief of the Six Nations, he fought with the British during the American Revolution, but was never sure that his choice was a wise one.

Joseph Brant was a deeply religious man. He translated the Bible into the Mohawk language and brought his children up as Christians. His one sorrow was his son Isaac, who resented his father's teachings and met his death at his father's hand.

ATWELL, LESTER. *Private*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster, Inc. 1958. 511 pp., \$5. The story opens in Europe in the late fall of 1944. Private

Lester Atwell's outfit, an inexperienced infantry company, is stationed near Metz. The men have never been in action, and the sweep of the advance units across France in the previous summer has prepared everyone's mind for the probability that the war will be over before Christmas. Then, in mid-December, the German counterattack, later called the Battle of the Bulge, strikes the Ardennes and the region south of it. Atwell's company receives its baptism of fire. The story told in this book spans the few months between that time and VE Day.

BALCHEN, BERNT. *Come North with Me*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, 300 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 318 pp., \$5. This is Bernt Balchen's autobiography, told in terms of the dramatic events which have shaped his life. It is the thrilling personal adventure story of a Norwegian boy who became a United States Colonel and played a key role in some of the most extraordinary feats of exploration this century has known.

The story opens in 1926 in Spitsbergen, where under the command of the famed Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian-American-Italian expedition is preparing for the first flight over the North Pole in a dirigible. There it was that Bernt Balchen met the man who was to play such a significant part in his entire professional career—Richard E. Byrd. Balchen helped the young American naval commander and Floyd Bennett take off in their big ski plane for their own North Pole flight. When the Byrd expedition returned to the United States, Bernt Balchen came with them. Closely associated with Byrd in the years that followed, Bernt Balchen won fame for his work as a pilot on the adventurous flight of Byrd's *America* across the Atlantic. Two years later he piloted Byrd in the *Floyd Bennett* over the icy expanses of Antarctica to the South Pole. Bernt Balchen tells graphically of these historic flights with the Navy explorer.

BARBEAU, MARIUS. *The Golden Phoenix*. New York 3: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 144 pp. \$3. From our neighbors to the north comes this exciting collection of eight French-Canadian fairy tales, stories the French colonists brought with them a hundred years ago. Young American readers will meet many fabulous people, including the bold and resourceful Petit Jean, a probable ancestor of our own Paul Bunyon. Here are all the best ingredients of fabledom, the crafty Sultan who almost—but not quite—outwits Petit Jean; the wicked princess who is properly punished for her deceptions; the handsome prince who is turned into a fox by the evil fairy.

BARUCH. *My Own Story*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 320 pp., 50¢. A fascinating autobiography.

BLIVEN, JR., BRUCE. *The American Revolution*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 190 pp., \$1.95. It was a war which started on April 19, 1775, when the minutemen of Lexington and Concord fired on the British Redcoats from Boston. But in the minds and hearts of the American people it was a revolution, the quarter of a century that transformed thirteen quarrelsome English colonies into a new nation, the United States of America. Here are the causes of the war, defined with graphic clarity. Here is a down-to-earth picture of Colonial economics. Here are the founding fathers, portrayed lifesize, struggling toward the common agreement expressed in the Declaration of Independence. And here, above all, is the inspiring battlefield narrative—including a detailed account of every important action from Lexington to Yorktown.

**BOTHWELL, JEAN.** *The Promise of the Rose*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 750 Third Avenue. 1958. 187 pp., \$3. Deeply troubled by the news that her guardian, the Emperor Akbar, has arranged for her marriage to a stranger and that soon she will have to leave her quiet country home, lovely and shy Aruna slips out at dawn to walk in her walled rose garden. But the peace it always gives her is abruptly shattered when she discovers a strange young man asleep there, guarded by a beautiful hound. Not until a series of swift, dramatic incidents have run their course—including a visit to the lavish court of Akbar and the discovery of the young man's real identity—does Aruna once more find peace and her own heart's true love.

**BRIDGE, ANN.** *The Portuguese Escape*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 286 pp., \$3.95. When Julia Probyn came to sun-lit Portugal to cover a royal wedding for her paper, the last thing she expected was to find herself involved in the escape of an important Hungarian priest, ruthless Communists who pursued him, and the affairs of a young Hungarian countess just released from behind the Iron Curtain.

The lovely countess, Hetta Palocz, a convent school girl for two thirds of her life and a cook to a rustic priest in Hungary for a rest, is suddenly plunged into an international society where social tact is just as important as the right clothes. Hetta had lived with poverty, hardship, and danger for her daily bread and here she vividly related her horrifying experiences in Soviet-dominated Hungary. Her adjustment to her new life in Portugal is complicated by the two men who are irresistibly drawn to her. One is a well brought-up American in the high Bostonian sense of the phrase; the other is outwardly much the conventional Englishman, but one who secretly adores recklessness.

**CAREY, G. V.** *Mind the Stop!* New York 22: Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th Street. 1958. 138 pp., 95¢. A brief guide to punctuation.

**CARTER, HODDING.** *The Marquis De Lafayette: Bright Sword for Freedom*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 188 pp., \$1.95. In the spring of 1824, American cities were aglow with fireworks and their citizens hoarse with cheering. The occasion was the triumphal tour of the aged Marquis de Lafayette, who had won the affection of Americans everywhere. This "homecoming" made a strange contrast to Lafayette's first visit to the same shores, forty-seven years before. Then he had been a shy sensitive youth, sadly disillusioned by the suppression of freedom in his native France. In the American Declaration of Independence, he had recognized a promise of the freedom he loved. Accordingly, he had pledged his honor, his great fortune, and his sword to the cause of the American Revolution.

**CHAPPELL, WARREN.** *The Nutcracker*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 36 pp., \$2.95. This book is based on the Alexandre Dumas pere version of the story by E. T. A. Hoffmann, with themes from the music by Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky. It was Christmas Eve. Snow was falling. The world of fantasy comes alive in this time-honored story of the gallant little Nutcracker, the Sugar Plum Fairy, and the ugly seven-headed Mouse King.

**COGGINS, JACK AND FLETCHER PRATT.** *Rockets, Satellites, and Space Travel*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 64 pp. (8" x 11"). \$1.95. After a brief review of the colorful history of rockets and their uses in ancient and modern warfare, the book describes simply and graphically the most recent experiments in space travel, including the launch-

ing of artificial satellites. There is an explanation of projected designs for space ships and space stations, and a fascinating description of an eventual trip to the moon. In addition, the book discusses the exciting possibility of establishing observations on the moon and undertaking longer flights to the planets nearest the earth.

Jack Coggins has provided spectacular illustrations—many in full color—depicting all phases of the text. And there are many diagrams and charts to add to the reader's understanding.

COLVER, ANNE. *Borrowed Treasure*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 92 pp., \$2.50. Molly-O and Pip were "best bosom friends," and they agreed on all the important things of life, particularly wanting to own a horse of their own. They had almost given up hope when a complication of circumstances, including an older brother, a jeep, a bumble bee, and a haystack start some real adventures. Finally, a "one-horse" farmer, Mr. Perkins, gives them a chance to borrow a somewhat sway-backed and discouraged horse named Charlie, who is promptly re-named Treasure. Molly-O and Pip soon find, however, that Treasure has brought a mystery with him. It takes the local Youth Center, brother Jack and his jeep, and the great detectives, Molly-O and Pip, to solve the mystery and to make Treasure's borrowed home a real one.

CROUSE, A. E. and RUSSEL. *Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 190 pp., \$1.95. The two duelists stood ten paces apart, pistols ready. Not a leaf stirred in the summer haze. Then, at the signal, a shot broke the silence sharply—the fatal shot which ended the life of one of America's greatest statesmen and ruined the career of another who might have been just as great. The men were Alexander Hamilton and Aaron Burr and their duel was destined to become one of the most famous in history. Though the details of the duel are well known, few of us are aware of the whole fascinating story behind this tragic encounter. How could two such brilliant men, once the friendliest of neighbors, have turned into such bitter enemies?

DANIELS, JONATHAN. *Prince of Carpetbaggers*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, E. Washington Square. 1958. 329 pp., \$4.95. "There are the facts," said the General "I am prepared to go back to North Carolina and stand trial. I make only one condition. I will go if all the other gentlemen involved—in Raleigh and North Carolina—will be put on trial as well." Brigadier General Milton S. Littlefield, the Yankee who had run for cover in New York with the final bursting of the leaky bubble of the Southern Reconstruction, knew that his Dixie associates were just as vulnerable.

General Littlefield, late of Sherman's Army, was one of Lincoln's friends and military proteges. In that March when he came to preside over Charleston's fall, his uniform at least was as immaculate as Lee's at Appomattox. But his career as a "Prince of Bummers" was about to begin. With some of the Southern respectables as associates, he exploited not only the South but Yankees, Englishmen, even Dutchmen. Then, after the climax on Black Friday, September 24, 1869, involving not only the New York brokerage houses but the South as well, both sides were glad to forget him.

DEFANT, ALBERT. *Ebb and Flow*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press. 1958. 121 pp. \$4. The story of tides is the story of cosmic forces acting across the emptiness of space—forces that only now, at the opening of the space age, are beginning to be understood. Tides affect our whole world.

The oceans, the air, the very earth we stand on—all stir to this great rhythm. Since the earliest times man has responded with awe, curiosity, and fear. Now he is learning to understand, measure, and predict the tides, making them his servant instead of his enemy.

This book describes simply and clearly what tides are, how they work, and why. It clears up many apparent mysteries. What immense force propels the tide waves of the Amazon, forming a cataract a mile broad and fifteen feet high? Why does the tide rise twice a day at San Francisco, once a day in Manila? Here are the answers to these and many other questions, in word and picture.

DEMARCHE, EDYTHE and DAVID. *Co-Ed Teen Activities*. New York 7: Association Press, 291 Broadway. 1958. 640 pp., \$7.95. Here is a great adventure in helping young people enjoy socially maturing good times together. See—in this colossal 640 page compendium—how shy, awkward early teen boys and girls can be involved in getting acquainted activities; see how older, more than-ready-to-socialize young men and women can work and play and learn together in happiness-building ways.

Wherever, whenever teens gather—at home, school, club, church, camp, teen center—there's wholesome fun and growth in store with these carefully selected and completely described ideas, directions, programs and activities. The publisher guarantees that this *Handbook of Co-Ed Teen Activities* can wean teens away from Juke box, TV, and even the family car and telephone . . . and introduce them to enriching social experiences! It's all in this mammoth, one-volume that young people will latch on to and that parents and leaders will have to guard!

The stage is set for mirth, merriment, and socializing by first introducing the "terrific teens" to themselves and to their adult leaders—including useful insights into young peoples' needs. The curtain then rises on a multitude of ways to meet these needs.

There is a complete Party Line—six full chapters crammed with the fun-how of giving memorable parties (reams of unusual themes for every season, for any reason—and just because). All the best ways to get the festivities under way and keep them bouncing. It tells how to put your best foot forward when it's Dance Time—everything from the Waltz to the Tango, dancing—square and round—how to lead and how to follow—how to give a formal ball that is a ball. There are 314 games for two, four or a whole gang of gals and guys—a lively assortment of musical, pen and pencil, trick, relay, water games, and many others.

DOUGLAS, W. O. *Exploring the Himalaya*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 185 pp. \$1.95. In this book the author, Justice Douglas, describes some of the most celebrated and dangerous mountain-climbing expeditions and tells of his own journey through the mountain ranges with a Tibetan caravan. His personal experiences as mountain climber and traveler have enabled him to give a vivid, firsthand account of the lives of the people who dwell in the shadows of the towering pinnacles and the rigors and hardships endured by those who have conquered the treacherous Himalayan peaks.

EGNER, R. E., editor. *Bertrand Russell's Best*. New York 22: The New American Library of Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 128 pp., 50¢. A lively selection of some of the wittiest, most pungent and most pertinent ideas of an influential and controversial twentieth-century philosopher.



FAIR, A. A. *The Count of Nine*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1958. \$2.95. You might call Bertha Cool the broad beam of the Cool and Lam Detective Agency. As this story begins, all 200-odd pounds of her are quivering happily at the thought of a fat fee to come. All Bertha has to do is guard the priceless treasures of wealthy explorer Dean Crockett II, who is about to throw a fabulous party. But somebody's hand is quicker even than Bertha's gimlet eye. One valuable jade Buddha and a primitive blow gun disappear. That's when brainy bantam-weight Donald steps in—but not before a very important character dies from a lethal dart. The pace is fierce—and it gets fiercer before the sensational, unexpected climax.

FREIDEL, FRANK. *The Splendid Little War*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Company, 34 Beacon Street. 1958. 320 pp. (8¼" x 10½"). \$8.50. This is their story, told in large measure in the words of those who were there at the time: the men who did the fighting and the famous correspondents who wrote about it. Told, too, in more than three hundred photographs and line drawings made on the spot by noted artists—Frederic Remington, Howard Chandler Christy, William J. Glackens, among others.

Frank Freidel, author of the definitive biography of Franklin D. Roosevelt and professor of history at Harvard, has combined pictures and text in a thrilling documentary of the war which began as a crusade, stirring the hearts of the men who rushed to enlist in it, and lost its innocence some place in the mud, the deaths, and the disillusionments between Santiago and the Philippines.

And here, recorded not as they appear in history, but in the words of stark reality that came from the men who fought in them, are the battles themselves. Dewey's famous triumph over the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay, accomplished as they fired, in the terrible heat, on ships whose movements were "flourishes of desperation inspired by defeat." The unforgettable battle of San Juan Hill—not the graceful assault that it became in legend, but the fierce struggle that made Stephen Crane cry out exultantly, "Yes, they were going up the hill, up the hill. It was the best moment of anybody's life."

FRIENDLICH, DICK. *Line Smasher*. New York 36: TAB Books, 33 West 42nd Street. 1958. 160 pp., 25¢. A football story with a moral.

GLEMSEY, BERNARD. *All About the Human Body*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 145 pp., \$1.95. When you cut your finger—even very slightly—a sharp pain warns you to pull your finger from the cutting surface; blood flows for a bit, then stops; a scab forms and then new skin grows over the scar. Miraculously every step takes place as though timed and propelled by an electric brain. Yet this is only one bit of evidence that the human body is the most marvelous machine ever developed. It is capable of almost any kind of motion and contortion. In many instances it can even mend and repair itself. Most remarkable, it grows and develops from two cells so tiny that they can hardly be seen. Nearly everything your body does is hidden from sight. You cannot see your heart beat, for example. You cannot see how your lungs function, how your food is digested, or how your muscles enable you to move.

GRANT, BRUCE. *Pancho-A Dog of the Plains*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company, 2231 W. 110th Street. 1958. 185 pp., \$2.75. "Stay here!" Little Jim told Pancho, and the big black shepherd dog obeyed even though he couldn't understand why he was being left alone in the ruined stage station at Crow Flat. Of course, he did know that the Apaches were responsible. Apaches



were also responsible for the long white scar on his right side, and Pancho hated them with a passion. There had been Apache signs all along the trail from Ysleta, and he had vainly tried to warn his masters of their danger. Now their horses were gone. Pancho, left to guard the engineers' valuable equipment in the "ambulance," watched them trudge back down the trail to get help from the Texas Rangers. Then he settled down at the entrance of the stage station to await their return. No Apache would raid the ambulance while Pancho was on guard. Twelve days later, when the Rangers and Little Jim finally got through to Crow Flat, Pancho was still on guard—a starving, thirst-mad dog with a gaping wound in his foreleg, and a marauding enemy up a tree!

GRAU, S. A. *The Hard Blue Sky*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 474 pp., \$5. The author penetrates the heart of a small, wind-swept island off the Louisiana coast and in a work of sustained lyrical beauty captures the mood and rhythm of life of the people who have for generations hung on to this narrow strip of land on the edge of a malignant swamp.

The islanders whom Miss Grau makes so vividly alive, reflecting in her rhythmic prose the musical subtlety of their speech, are an engaging inbred, primitive lot. Almost without defense against the insistent sun and seasonal storms, given, like the climate, to sudden violence, they are incapable of reaching beyond the hard blue sky that binds them. Only Annie, young and burgeoning, lets her need of a man carry her beyond the confines of the island world.

The Isle aux Chiens summer of which the author writes is an eventful one: the pilot of a sailboat from the mainland is marooned on the island and lingers on through the hot, empty days, and mounts when one of the island boys, a crazy kid, fails to return from a fishing trip through the treacherous bayous. Moving toward an inevitable climax as the oppressive heat culminates in an end-of-summer storm, Miss Grau evokes in a series of wonderfully human scenes the whole vibrant fabric of existence on a segment of the lower coast.

GUARESCHI, GIOVANNI. *My Secret Diary*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 256 pp., \$3.75. Fourteen years ago Giovanni Guareschi and his fellow countrymen were the unwanted men of the war. "As an Italian," says Guareschi, "I found myself an ally of the Germans at the start and at the end their prisoner. In 1943 the Anglo-Americans bombed my house; in 1945 they freed me from prison and gave me cans of soup and condensed milk."

The irony of the situation was not lost upon Guareschi, who uses humor as a weapon against the enemy and a shield against misery. Using his prison camp diary, he tells of his experiences in a poignant, Chaplinesque manner that is never grotesque, never out of place. On July 26, 1944, one year after the deposition of Mussolini, he reports: "In a recently arrived package from Italy, Lieutenant F. discovered, inside a bag of sugar, a 12.5 cartridge, obviously the gift of an English flyer who had shot up the train while it was on its way. The new alliance with England is beginning to bear fruit."

This book is not, however, a superficial book; it is a plea for good will among men. The author sums up his prison camp experiences by stating: "I emerged as a victor, because I came through the cataclysm without hatred in my soul."

HEINRICH, WILLI. *Crack of Doom*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Cudahy, 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 317 pp., \$3.95. The setting of this new novel

by the author of *The Cross of Iron* is the Carpathian Mountains of Czechoslovakia, and the time is December 1944, when the German Army was being rolled back by the Russians. The commanding general of a German division has been captured by Czech partisans, and a handful of soldiers are assigned to the task of finding him. In order to lure the partisans into the open, three of the men masquerade as deserters who have holed up in a tiny Czech village which the division intelligence suspects is headquarters for the partisans. Of these three men, one is a fanatical Nazi, one has plans for really deserting the army, and the third wants to get away long enough to warn his fiancée, a Czech, of the impending Russian breakthrough.

Several events happen almost simultaneously: the Russians open a tremendous barrage; the officer temporarily in charge of the division goes to pieces; the division headquarters is blown up by partisans, one of whom is captured and leads the Gestapo to the very village where the German "deserters" are hiding.

HEINROTH, OSKAR and KATHARINA. *The Birds*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. 1958. 181 pp., \$5. This book is a storehouse of knowledge about every facet of bird life. An authoritative account written by scientists for the general reader, it explodes many of our cherished myths—but the truth it tells is more compelling.

Do you know how a canary can go to sleep on its perch without falling off? Does a baby cuckoo really take over a stranger's nest, tossing out the eggs and young birds that belong there? How does a homing pigeon find his way home? Dr. and Mrs. Heinroth tell us how birds mate, migrate, eat, sleep, fly, swim, see, taste, hear, and think—how they are born, live, love, and die.

In their home the Heinroths raised birds from the egg, photographed and sketched them, and painstakingly recorded every facet of their lives. In the wild, and in the Berlin Zoo, they pursued their study with the same devotion. The result is a book of extraordinary scope and authority, opening up new worlds of fact for student and amateur alike.

HENRY, WILL. *Orphan of the North*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 176 pp., \$2.95. There was no sound in the Hemlock Wood. No least movement disturbed the vast, uneasy quiet of the white arctic woodland. Yet the very silence smelled of fear. Beneath its eerie spell the animals crouched waiting. Suddenly from the north came the long, mournful cry of the white arctic wolves. The savage wolf pack was abroad again, eager for the kill. The silence was broken, the waiting done. Into this animal world of fear and uncertainty was born the moose calf Awklet. Though his old mother defended him with her life, the terrified calf unexpectedly found himself face to face with the powerful killer-leader of the wolf pack. On that very first day of his life, Awklet barely escaped death.

HERRON, E. A. *First Scientist of Alaska*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1958. 192 pp., \$2.95. William Healey Dall was the first American naturalist to penetrate the vast wilderness of Alaska. His adventures began with a mammoth project to link the world by telegraph, as Western Union raced to stretch a line across the United States to meet the Siberian line that would connect in Alaska. His job was to map the safest route through the vast uncharted area, at the same time collecting specimens for the Smithsonian Institution.

Dall traveled thousands of dangerous miles through Alaska and the Aleutian Islands as a member of the U. S. Coast Survey, and served as paleontologist

for the U. S. Geological Survey, becoming an authority on mollusks. A superb reporter, his books and articles are still a guide to scholars today, and his marine, botanical, and geological specimens are treasured at the Smithsonian Institution as invaluable contributions to science.

Science fascinated Dall from boyhood, and he hated his job as a clerk in a Boston firm. He was more concerned with research than with talk of the Civil War which swirled about him—until he was arrested on suspicion of espionage and nearly hanged. Professor Louis Agassiz, with whom young Dall studied, cleared him, and he went on to work at Harvard University, then volunteered for the Union Army. President Lincoln wisely sensed Dall's destiny and said, "Don't wait to get on with your scientific work, son. The war is nearly over." So William Healey Dall started serious work in science in the far stretches of Alaska, facing unknown terrors and incredible hardships.

HEYERDAHL, THOR. *Aku-Aku*. Skokie, Illinois: Rand McNally and Company, 8255 Central Park Avenue. 1958. 384 pp., \$6.95. Eight years after his famed *Kon-Tiki* raft expedition, Thor Heyerdahl returned to the South-east Pacific to solve the mysteries of Easter Island. Who carved the giant stone statues that have puzzled experts for over a century? When? How were these fifty-ton statues transported by a primitive race who presumably possessed no mechanical skills, miles from the quarry where they originated? What toppled them over, so that they now lie strewn along the heights and plains of this tiny island in the Pacific?

Thor Heyerdahl soon discovered that the island's mysteries went far beyond its famous statues. For in dozens of secret caves scattered over the island—some of them refuges from some unknown, long-departed invader—lay other objects: carvings of skulls and strange beasts and human masks, and the rongo-rongo boards with their inscriptions which had long defied deciphering, each bearing clues to the skills and customs of an earlier people.

Before the author's expedition no scientist had been able to penetrate the natives' all-powerful taboos. But "Senor Kon-Tiki's" fame had preceeded him: to the superstition-ridden natives he was a mighty ancestor returned from the days of their island's greatness. Month by month the legend of his personal "guardian spirit"—his *aku-aku*—grew, until at last he gained the natives' confidence and they revealed to him the entrances to their family caves.

Bit by bit the pieces of the puzzle fall into place: the origin of the statues, the secrets of the caves, the story of the ancient stone-carving "long-ears" with their pale skin and red hair, the cannibalism and the civil wars that the islanders endured. Filled with color and excitement, the book transports you into the midst of a human drama of extraordinary interest. You follow Thor Heyerdahl's hazardous explorations across tortuous cliffs and into the bowels of the earth, through passages hardly large enough to admit a human body . . . and you meet the strange, suspicious natives who inherited the closely guarded secrets of their ancestors.

*Aku-Aku* is, in short, a modern scientific detective story of first rank, and an adventure as enthralling as any work of fiction. Already it has won acclaim in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, and Great Britain.

HOKE, HELEN, editor. *Witches, Witches, Witches*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Avenue. 1958. 240 pp., \$2.95. Since time past remembering, children (and sometimes older-than-they) have loved to shudder over the dreadful deeds of witches. There are famous witches in the folklore—and indeed in the history, too!—of all countries. And the plots of

many famous books have been enlivened by the activities of these eerie and exciting creatures.

Here is a collection of stories—and some poetry, too—of a variety of the favorite old and traditional witches with their specialties. But more than that, there are several rousing stories about new kinds of witches: the not-so-terrifying (sometimes merely mischievous) witches—and even one story about a fairly modern type of witch, a good witch! But witch rules remain much the same, over the years, so each of the stories has the proper frightening ingredients: the three (or sometimes seven) deeds; the search for charms that will defeat the wicked witches' wishes; and the witches' eventual downfall, even when the heroes or heroines do not perform in a letter-perfect fashion.

HOLDEN, RAYMOND. *All About Famous Scientific Expeditions*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 150 pp., \$1.95. Bit by bit a hole was chipped through the door of an underground chamber sealed for 3,000 years. By flickering candlelight, two scientists peered at the treasures it contained. More than a third of a mile beneath the surface of the sea, two other scientists looked out on a strange new world from the windows of their hollow steel diving ball. And on the icy peaks of Mt. McKinley a tiny group of men fought their way to the 20,000-foot summit.

In each of these hair-raising adventures, men risked personal disaster in the search for scientific information. In this book the author tells the thrilling stories of five of the great scientific expeditions of the world. As you read this book, you will follow him up a snow-capped mountain, into the Arctic, to the ocean depths, to hunt dragons in the tropics, and to find treasures in an Egyptian tomb. Most important, you will see how men of courage have persevered in their determination to add to our knowledge of science.

HOLE, CHRISTINA. *Christmas and Its Customs*. New York 16: M. Barrows and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1957. 95 pp., \$1.95. This book was written by one of England's leading writers on folklore. It tells the fascinating story of Christmas the world over, from the beginning to the present day. Aside from religious observances, we Americans take Santa Claus, presents, holly, trees, carol singing, and all the other pleasant Christmas customs very much for granted. How intriguing it is to follow Christina Hole as she traces them to their origins!

Many of our cherished traditions are buried deep in the pagan past. In fact, when Christmas was first officially established, the date coincided with ancient celebrations of the sun's rebirth at the winter solstice. The Church saw no reason to destroy the old customs, and so they were adapted to fit our celebration of the birth of Christ. Each country added its own ancient lore to the melting pot of Christmas tradition, hence the variety and diversity that exist throughout the world.

JOESTEN, JOACHIM. *Youth Abroad*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc. 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 182 pp., \$3. Here is a stimulating discussion of post-war youth in Europe today—a comparison, country by country, and then a thorough account of the famous international Pestalozzi Village in Troge, Switzerland. To present European teenagers to young American readers, the author interviewed the teenagers themselves, their parents, and their teachers. He has traveled widely throughout Europe, America, Asia, and Africa and has studied at the universities of Breslau, Berlin, Cologne, Munich, Nancy, and Madrid. From this wealth of experience he has drawn a description of the average young European—how he works and how he plays—and

also of the not-so-average ones, such as the notorious English Teddy Boy. First the differences between individual countries are stressed and then their common problems are merged in the exciting description of the Pestalozzi Village.

KELSEY, A. G. *Tino and the Typhoon*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1958. 151 pp., \$2.75. Tino is the eldest of the lighthouse keeper's children. They live in a fishing village in the Philippines. Tino is skillful with his hands and fascinated by what he has heard of radios forecasting the weather. He tells the fishermen about them. But he has a terror of high places and cannot make himself climb the thirty-one steps of the lighthouse ladder to see about the lamps. His sister Erlinda sympathizes and does this chore for him, although she does not understand his fear.

There is pleasant day-by-day family living portrayed in the story that young readers will enjoy. On their Independence Day trip to the mountains, the children hear about the guerrilla soldiers and how their uncle became the hero of Darapidap in the war. Hunting in the jungle, they capture a baby monkey in a most ingenious way.

When the typhoon strikes, the fisherboats are out at sea. In the midst of lashing winds the beacon goes out. To relight the huge lamp is beyond Erlinda's strength, and Tino knows the great need to have the light guide home the men at sea. In spite of his fear, he follows Erlinda up the steps and the lamp is relighted. When the storm dies, the fishermen are guided home and Tino wins his coveted place in his father's boat. He is the new hero.

LANDIS, L. C. *The Air Force from Civilian to Airman*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1958. 191 pp. \$2. "The United States Air Force, in contrast to the other armed forces, is a young service—not in years alone, but in spirit as well." Thus Lawrence Landis begins his account of the Air Force, telling how it is still possible to enjoy the exhilarating personal experience of talking to the founders, pioneers, and leaders of this service. Then he tells what the recruiting station is doing to keep the Air Force the "young organization" it has to be, describing four interviews with a representative cross section of applicants.

Lackland, known as the "gateway to the Air Force," is the only Air Force base serving as a reception and training center for new airmen and officers, and the author gives a detailed description of the five weeks that basic trainees spend there. There is a discussion of the technical schools where officers and airmen of all ranks are instructed in approximately two hundred specialties, and a look at the internal organization and primary missions of the Air Force as we know it today. The author also considers how it began, expanded, and emerged as America's "first line of defense."

Next there is a detailed description of assignments at the hundreds of Air Force bases, and a survey of commissioned service for those who wish to become officers. Here, too, are described the uncommon men-pilots, flight surgeons, and others—who serve as a vanguard of pathfinders, frontiersmen in the air age; and there is a glimpse of the air world of tomorrow, of manned aircraft, missiles, and spacecraft of dazzling efficiency and military might.

LEINHAUSER, R. D. *Aunt Sharon's Wedding Day*. New York 18: Ives Washburn, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1958. 180 pp., \$2.95. Life looked very sad the day Dr. and Mrs. Ellis set off to attend a medical convention, leaving eight-year-old Anne Sharon, until suddenly the doorbell rang while

they were eating supper. Right on their own doorstep was a large basket containing a beautiful baby girl, some clothes, and a note which explained that the baby's name was Sally and that she was being left at the Ellis home until her parents could take care of her again.

Sally was joyfully welcomed by the girls, and Aunt Sharon agreed she could stay with them until their parents returned and decided what to do about the baby. It was great fun taking care of Sally, and soon it was time to travel to Chicago for Aunt Sharon's wedding to their beloved friend, Dr. Bill. Life was very busy and exciting for Anne and Joyce, what with having Sally to love and worry about, taking part in the big church wedding, and helping to find Archie, the boy next door, who disappeared the day of the wedding.

LEMMON, R. S. *All About Monkeys*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 160 pp., \$1.95. On the far-off island of Borneo lives a strange little creature about the size of a rat, with pop eyes and hands very much like a man's. Because he has long fringes of hair near the end of his tail, he is called a Feathertail. This peculiar little beast is believed to be almost exactly like the earliest monkey ancestor that lived more than sixty million years ago.

Today the monkey population of the world totals many billions. Besides the Feathertail, there are over seven hundred kinds of monkeys. Sizes range from the tiny marmoset that weighs only a few ounces to his cousin the gorilla that may weigh as much as 600 pounds. There are Dog monkeys with doglike jaws, Military monkeys that march like soldiers, Crab-Eaters that live near the water and fish for their food, and the grimfaced Howler monkeys whose roar is more terrifying than that of the African lion.

MCCARDELL, LEE. *Ill-Starred General*. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press, 3309 Cathedral of Learning. 1958. 347 pp. \$6.00. Here is a biography with action and color. Its setting covers two continents and many nations—from the glitter and pomp of St. James's Palace to a bloody ravine along the faraway banks of the Monongahela. It spans a century (1660-1755) when the world turned upside down; when empires were built and kingdoms broken; when great fortunes were made and lost in battle and greater ones in politics; and when the pen quite literally was as deadly as the sword.

Its action is in the perfumed drawing rooms of women courted for their power to control preferment and patronage; in the dissolute taverns where plot and counterplot ruined the mighty and raised up the lowly; on battlefields which decided the fate of powerful nations, made heroes and unmade them, too.

And back and around the tragic central figure, Edward Braddock—grandson of a Gentleman of the Chapel Royal, son of an officer in the proud Coldstream Guards—move the variety and action and speech of romantic people, caught in their strongest and weakest moments.

The Stuart Kings, the Hanoverian Georges, Louis XIV and XV of France, the princes of the low countries; England's Marlborough, Walpole, and Steele; Contrecoeur, Beaujew, and their Canadian colleagues; the proud Delaware and Shawnee chieftains; British colonists—Dinwiddle, Croghan, Gist, Washington, and Franklin; colonial governors; British and American soldiers; sailors of the Royal Navy; traders and farmers and frontier scouts; and many, many others, great and small, in this book play their parts on the stage of world



history. Lee McCardell has documented the book with letters and proclamations, military orders, wills, church records, and dozens of firsthand and contemporary source material.

Edward Braddock, the author shows, was a man of his time—no worse than many, braver than most—deserving the rewards of ambition which slipped his grasp and fell to those who betrayed and failed him. In his own time, the records show, he was too often judged by writers who seldom wrote a word without bias and who thrived on the gossip of drawing rooms and taverns—who played with words for fabulous stakes of power and fortune. Braddock marched inevitably to his tragic end in a world where success paid off in incredible wealth and prestige, and failure brought poverty and disgrace.

In his final trial, the conquest of the Ohio Valley, his heartbreaking defeat was mixed with a kind of glory. For sifted by the judgment of time, history reveals that in spite of dishonesty and indifference and delay by those who had every reason to support his cause, in spite of difficulties and delays that might have stopped a man of lesser courage, Braddock built a remarkable force and with it forged a road through unbroken forests, across steep mountain trails—widening paths walked before him only by Indians and traders. And so, faulty though he often undoubtedly was, by his stubborn courage and unwavering loyalty to the England he never let down, he opened a way west across the American continent and showed the French their days on that continent were numbered.

MCCLUNG, R. M. *All About Animals and Their Young*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 154 pp. \$1.95. A mother bear will protect and guide her cubs for a year or more in her effort to give them a proper upbringing. A female kilddeer will pretend injury and risk her life to divert the attention of those who might harm her eggs or chicks. Yet an insect will lay her eggs and never return to see her young. And a female sunfish leaves her eggs for the male to protect until the young can swim freely by themselves. The story of animals and their young is almost as varied as the animals themselves. From the tiny amoeba to the giant whale, there is believe-it-or-not information about how they reproduce, how they prepare for their babies, and how they care for them or ignore them.

MEYER, J. S. *Machines*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company, 2231 W. 110th Street. 1958. 64 pp. \$2.50. Modern machines are often so big and complex that it is difficult to realize that their moving parts are simply variations or combinations of four, and only four, basic principles. Here, written in easy-to-read, nontechnical language, is an introduction to the wheel and axle, the lever, the screw, and the wedge—the four basic kinds of motion that govern the operation of all machines.

All of these principles have, of course, been known since ancient times, but neither the wheel, the lever, the screw, nor the wedge will work by itself. They must be moved by some power, or force, in order to do work. So here, too, is the story of how, after centuries of using only man or animal power, wind or water power, man finally learned to build the necessary power into machines themselves.

MONTAGN, ASHLEY. *Man: His First Million Years*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1957. 192 pp., 50¢. An eminent anthropologist traces man's cultural and physical development—from prehistoric times to the present day.



MURRAY, A. A. *The Blanket*. New York 17: Vanguard Press, 424 Madison Avenue. 1958. 192 pp., \$3.50. The author of this novel portraying the clash between primitive African and civilized justice spent more than twenty years in Basutoland, Africa. During this period he lived in almost all the "camps," or stations, that serve as headquarters for the nine districts that make up this territory. The author's knowledge of the native people is thus based on personal experience.

NEAL, H. E. *Skyblazers, Your Career in Aviation*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1958. 192 pp., \$3.50. This is a book about two futures of vital importance to the whole world—the future of youth and the future of flight. Modern aviation, with its jet planes, pilotless aircraft and experiments in space travel and nuclear-powered air vehicles, has a tremendous need for young men and women. And today's youth in search of exciting and stimulating careers will find unusual opportunities in aviation both in the air and on the ground.

This book covers the wide range of careers available in military and naval aviation, in commercial airlines, the aircraft industry, and in "business flying." It tells what education, skills, and other qualifications are needed to become pilots, navigators, designers, draftsmen, technical illustrators, engineers, mechanics, machinists, instrument repairmen, radar and radio technicians, meteorologists, aerial photographers, and other skilled workers in the manufacture, operation, and maintenance of aircraft and missiles.

In a behind-the-scenes chapter the author discusses ticket and reservation agents, flight dispatchers, file clerks, typists, secretaries, teletype operators, accountants, business machine operators, sales representatives, freight agents, personnel experts, and other administrative employees.

NELSON, KLONDY, and COREY FORD. *Daughter of the Gold Rush*. New York 22: Random House, Inc., 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 184 pp., \$3.50. Alaska! Even today, the mere sound of the name touches off heady dreams of romance and adventure. But imagine what it was like in the early days of the Klondike gold rush, just before the turn of the century. Imagine what it was like for a woman. It was the last frontier of the American dream—the dream of discovery and pioneering and the pot of gold at the end of the rainbow—or just over the next snow-covered hill. It was a restless, violent land, a rich-one-day-and-poor-the-next land, a let's move-on-to-the-next-strike land.

Only a woman who lived through it could know what it was like—and Alaska was home for Klondy Nelson from the time she was four years old until she was a grown woman. Klondy's father was a prospector whose compulsive search for gold transcended everything else in his life, even his family. He struck out for the Klondike alone when Klondy was a baby. Four years later his wife and child joined him, and Klondy grew up in the boom town of Nome. It was a tough, raucous, violent town for a little girl. Prospectors, gamblers, and claim jumpers rubbed elbows with famous explorers like Wilkins and Amundsen, and promoters like Tex Rickard, who ran a saloon in Nome. Klondy knew them all (even an ambitious kid called Jimmy, who later came to be known as General Doolittle!) and took her world in stride.

NORMAN, CHARLES. *The Flight and Adventures of Charles II*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 188 pp., \$1.95. Disguised as a working man, without even a weapon to protect himself, Charles II embarked upon one of the most romantic adventures in English history. His father, Charles I, had been beheaded by order of a high tribunal in the final round of a bitter struggle with Parliament and the army. And with his execution it seemed that the British monarchy had come to an end. However, to the many subjects who remained loyal, the Prince of Wales was now King. Six feet tall, with regular, handsome features, young Charles was only nineteen years old. But he had grown up in the shadow of civil wars and did not lack for courage. Fearlessly he set out to rally an army of faithful Scotsmen and Englishmen.

Luck went against the young king. His army met with a crushing defeat and Charles was forced to flee from the wrath of Oliver Cromwell, Lord Protector of the new Commonwealth. While Cromwell's army scoured the land, Charles made his perilous way over the shires of England. A hunted man with a price on his head, he passed from the protection of one loyal friend to another. Those who recognized him held the King's life in their hands. In this volume Charles Norman relates in vivid detail the breathtaking flight of Charles and the forces which eventually led to the restoration of the monarchy.

NORTON, ANDRE. *The Time Traders*. Cleveland 2: The World Publishing Company, 2231 West 110th Street. 1958. 219 pp., \$3. If it is possible to conquer space, then perhaps it is also possible to conquer time. At least that was the theory American scientists were exploring in an effort to explain the new sources of knowledge the Russians possessed. Perhaps Russian scientists had discovered how to transport themselves back in time in order to learn long-forgotten secrets of the past.

That was shy, young Ross Murdock, above average in intelligence but a belligerently independent nonconformist, found himself on a "hush-hush" government project at a secret base in the Arctic. The very qualities that made him a menace in civilized society were valuable traits in a man who must successfully act the part of a merchant trader of the Beaker people during the Bronze Age.

For once they were transferred by time machine to the remote Baltic region where the Russian post was located, Ross and his partner Ashe were swept into a fantastic action-filled adventure involving Russians, superstitious prehistoric men, and the aliens of a lost galactic civilization that demanded every ounce of courage the Americans possessed.

O'BRIEN, K. L. and M. S. LAFRANCE. *New First-Year French*. Boston 17: Ginn and Company, Statler Building. 1958. 518 pp., \$4.40. This book is planned for students who are beginning the study of French; but it also meets the needs of students who have been introduced orally to French in the elementary grades and who are now ready to consolidate the language patterns they learned there and to proceed with the grammar and reading which are indispensable to a well-integrated program.

The book implements what the authors believe to be the aim of language learning: to acquaint the student with the patterns of the foreign language to

the fullest extent possible at his level. It trains the student to understand French when it is spoken (aural skill); to speak it himself (oral skill); and, within reasonable limits, to read it and write it. For students at this stage, the authors believe in painstaking work in all four processes. Repetition is an essential of learning; repetition of linguistic patterns through the four media of hearing, speaking, reading, and writing can hardly fail to produce results.

From the beginning as much as possible of both teaching and learning should be done orally. Responding to repeated aural stimuli from the minute the class is under way and repeatedly imitating what is heard establish in the student's mind a consciousness of proper patterns of structure, phrasing, and rhythm, and implant in his speech organs the correct habits of oral reaction to them. Later, reading and composition are found to be simply the recognition and the imitation of what has been heard and said.

This book adapts itself readily to the amount of aural-oral work which the teacher desires. It is suited, for example, to intensive aural-oral work throughout the year. After the first ten lessons, during which all class work should be carried on in French, the teacher who wishes to do so may continue to limit the use of English as stringently as he pleases. Making the student memorize models instead of English rules is one way of doing so. Avoiding exercises in which English appears is another.

It also adapts itself to the pace at which the teacher must travel. With a slow class, he may cover the first thirty lessons, which contain the minimum essentials of a first-year course and with a fast class, he can finish forty lessons. All causeries but the first may be omitted with no impairment of the text.

This book is enriched by an abundance of beautiful photographs, many of them in color. Excellent objective tests, by Dr. Nelson Brooks of Yale University, are available. There is also an album of records; and for the young teacher, a helpful *Manual*, which includes a key.

OLDS, H. D. *The Silver Button*. New York 22: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 32 pp., \$2.50. Stevie was six years old and in the first grade. So far, Susan, his older sister, had taken him back and forth to school each day. Stevie liked school and liked going to school—until the day Mother told him he had to walk home alone. It's not that Stevie was really frightened, but there were so many fierce things to pass—a fierce dog, a mean boy, and a scowling policeman. To help him, Susan gave Stevie a very special button that would give him courage.

PARKER, RICHARD. *The Sword of Ganelon*. New York 18: David McKay Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1958. 223 pp., \$3.50. Through the eyes of the hero, Binna, a Jute, youngest of three brothers, and the girl Goede, we see the ancestors of present-day Britons at grips with their life. It was a life haunted by wolves skulking in from the forests in winter, and the no less murderous marauding Danes, invading from the north. There were also the fears engendered by ancient superstitions which still had power over many of the people.

PEARSALL, MILO, and C. G. LEEDHAM. *Dog Obedience Training*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 384 pp., \$4.95. This book is designed as a complete guide for the training of any dog, from pets of worldly ancestry to the purebred animals of the show and obedience rings. Above all, it is designed for the owner who likes his dog and

who wants to train him without the use of force or violence, to have him work with confidence and enthusiasm. The necessary information is presented clearly, and photographs, taken under the supervision of the authors, illustrate each important point.

PECK, A. M. *The Pageant of South American History*. New York 18: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc., 119 West 40th Street. 1958. 419 pp., \$6. From the ancient civilizations of primitive South America to our present-day dream of a united hemisphere, Mrs. Peck tells the story of the great continent to the south. Vivid, compact, and accurate is the flow of this informal history, its scenes charged with warmth and light and color. The legendary origins of the Inca dynasty and the sixteenth-century conquest of Peru glow in the telling. In dramatic sequence follow the growth of the colonial empires and the upheavals when the colonies thrilled to the call of freedom and became independent nations. Recent economic and social developments point to an exciting future.

Mrs. Peck is well known for the acute perception of cultural and historic values shown in her travel books. This book is the fruit of many years of travel and special study of South America's arts, literature, history, and culture. Throughout the historical record, she enriches and enlivens the text with her individual interpretations and sympathetic appreciation of these peoples. This revision brings the record up to the present day.

PETERSON, E. L. *Penn's Woods West*. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press, 3309 Cathedral of Learning. 1958. 263 pp. (9"/11¼"). \$15. If you like the sound of running waters or of birds singing in the morning, if you like the smell of campfires or of hemlock groves, if you like to drive along a country road on a summer afternoon, you will probably like this book. You may even come to treasure it. It tells of the woods and fields and rivers and mountains of Western Pennsylvania. It tells of trout streams, wild flowers, and boys who play hooky to go fishing, of frogs and owls that talk in the night about important matters. It tells of man's dependence upon the natural world.

Further, it is illustrated by more than three hundred photographs. This is a book to read on summer evenings or winter nights, a book to lend, a book to give, a book to remember.

PICARD, B. L. *German Hero-Sagas and Folk-Tales*. New York 3: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 207 pp., \$3.50. This new volume in the Oxford Myths and Legends series is divided into two sections. The first relates some of the splendid legends of the great German heroes, among them the story of Gudrun and the stirring saga of Siegfried and the vengeance of Kriemhild—stories of the legendary past of the Teutonic people. There follows a lively collection of traditional folk-tales including the entertaining escapades of the rascally Till Eulenspiegel, well-known stories like *The Mousetower* and *The Ratcatcher of Hamelin*, and others, perhaps less familiar, tales of enchantment and chivalry.

POPE, DUDLEY. *73 North — The Defeat of Hitler's Navy*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Company, E. Washington Square. 1958. 288 pp., \$4.95. "This means the passing of the High Seas Fleet," declared Adolf Hitler in a fit of uncontrolled fury on New Year's Day, 1943, and he ordered the scrapping of the whole German surface fleet—three battleships, two pocket battleships, three battle cruisers, six cruisers. One of the crucial decisions of the war had been taken.

What was the naval action that defeated such a fleet? Captain (now Admiral) R. St. Vincent Sherbrooke of the Royal Navy had been ordered to escort a convoy by the Arctic route to Russia. It was mid-winter and nature was almost a worse enemy than the Germans, but a U-boat spotted the convoy and the *Lutzow* and the *Hipper* and six large destroyers were ordered to annihilate it. Captain Sherbrooke, with only four small destroyers, beat off the attack. Not one merchantman was lost. Badly wounded and blinded, his own ship very near sinking, he had fought a battle which earned for him the Victoria Cross.

*Popular World Atlas*. Skokie, Illinois: Rand McNally and Company, 8255 Central Park Avenue. 1958. 180 pp., \$3.50. The news of current events—like the history of the past—can be fully understood and appreciated best when one has a knowledge of where things have taken place. Convenient and constant access to a good, up-to-date atlas will double the satisfaction to be had from following the news of the day or contemplating the great happenings of other times. This Rand McNally *Popular World Atlas* is handy, comprehensive, and reliable. It fits the standard bookshelf, is small enough to rest unobtrusively on a chair-side table, television set, or with a globe of the world, yet it contains detailed maps and other information to answer most of the questions raised in daily reading and following of the news.

Here are 142 pages of up-to-the minute maps that cover the whole world. All are authentic, easy to read, beautifully colored. There is a map of each state and of each continent, as well as large-scale maps of all important areas throughout the world. A comprehensive index makes it easy to find quickly any place on the maps, and gives the latest populations for cities, countries, and states.

In the valuable "World Political Information Table" is a wealth of often-needed facts about the political divisions (countries, states, provinces, colonies, etc.) of the world, showing their areas, populations, forms of government, ruling powers, and predominant languages.

PRESCOTT, JOHN. *Ordeal*. New York 22: Random House, Inc., 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 189 pp., \$3.50. Six people rode the stage from Tucson bound for San Diego. Young Muller, with his flask of whiskey and his desert knowledge that he tried to deny; middle-aged Huston, close mouthed and enigmatic; Ansel Jager, the flashily dressed gambler; Maggie Hale, the painted dance-hall girl—all carried secrets and guilt. Only the old prospector and Lieutenant James V. Patterson, just out of West Point and on his way to his first post of duty at the Presidio, clearly were what they declared themselves to be. Jager and Maggie seemed to have some acquaintance with one another; other than that, the six are strangers.

Attacked by Apaches, the stage was overturned and the driver killed—and the party was set afoot in the desert, miles from water or help. The Indians lurked within rifle range, ever threatening, as the little band faced the grueling walk across the desert to a reported water hole. There was one ray of hope, which might, instead, become a fatal obstacle. That was the mass of thunderclouds hanging so tantalizingly over the mountains on the far horizon. Rain could alleviate the searing heat, even furnish drinking water. A cloudburst or a tornado could mean further disaster.

Under the stress of desert heat, fatigue and intermittent sniping by the Indians, the real personalities of the men and the girl begin to emerge. Old hatreds flare; guilty secrets, as well as hidden heroisms and loyalties, come

to the surface. Violent action, heroism, cowardice, and reckless avarice form the catalyst which brings into focus the backgrounds of the characters, and the stark poetic justice that the ordeal brings to each one.

RIESENBERG, JR., FELIX. *The Story of The Naval Academy*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 190 pp., \$1.95. Thirty miles east of Washington, imposing white buildings look out on the mouth of the Severn River at Annapolis, Maryland. This is the United States Naval Academy where 4,000 midshipmen are in training to become officers in the mightiest navy the world has ever known. A line of small sailboats is moored at the sea wall. On the river, Academy yachts ride at anchor and Yard patrol boats maneuver. The rhythmic tread of marching feet can be heard as squads of midshipmen go to their classes. Or the Naval Academy band fills the air as the entire Brigade swings across Worden Field in dress parade. To this picturesque spot come thousands of young men who have passed the highest physical and mental tests. Four years later they go forth to the fighting ships of the Fleet as officers of the United States Navy.

ROBERTSON, KEITH. *The Navy from Civilian to Sailor*. New York 22: The Viking Press, 625 Madison Avenue. 1958. 188 pp., \$2. Keith Robertson begins his picture of the Navy by telling why we have peacetime draft and then contrasting the uncertainty of waiting for the draft with a number of advantages in voluntarily discharging one's military obligation. Next he explains why young men will like the Navy and also gives warning to those who will not like it or fit into the naval service. Then he raises the question, "Do you want to be an enlisted man in the Navy or do you want to try for an officer's commission?" He helps the reader to answer this question by describing the differences between enlisted men and officers, their duties and responsibilities, and why we have two categories in the first place.

Nine out of ten men entering the Navy start their active naval careers by going through a Recruit Training Course at a Naval Training Center. This nine-week course is described here in detail, as is shipboard life, which is a common Navy experience once training days are over. The illustrious record and illustrious heroes of the Navy are briefly presented, and the sweeping and rapid changes this service is undergoing today—giving us a Navy that is new and vastly different in many ways—are described. The last part of the book is devoted to important facts and figures: laws governing one's military obligation; enlisted opportunities; paths to a commission; leave and liberty; pay and benefits.

ROCKE, PAUL, translator. *The Oedipus Plays of Sophocles*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Avenue. 1958. 224 pp., 75¢. Contains the complete texts of *Oedipus the King*, *Oedipus at Colonus*, and *Antigone*.

SCHWALJE, MARJORY and EARL. *The Boy Who Made Magic*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 404 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 144 pp., \$2.75. When Cracker Delaney went for a walk one summer day, he was longing for excitement, but didn't really expect to find it. Then, suddenly he saw an orange trailer, and soon he met its occupant, Marmaduke the Magnificent, an elderly, out-of-work, circus magician, and his pet macaw, Nanette. The boy and the man strike up a friendship, which soon includes Cracker's Aunt Sandy. Their adventures together make a story full of unexpected happenings and magic of many kinds.



SCHWEITZER, ALBERT. *Peace or Atomic War?* New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 383 Madison Avenue. 1958. 47 pp., \$1.50. Convinced that nations will not come to a workable agreement to end nuclear tests without the insistence of world public opinion, Albert Schweitzer, a noble and notable citizen of our age, has addressed an appeal to the peoples of the world. In this book he sums up all the arguments in favor of nuclear tests, and then shatters them one by one. The most sinister effects of radiation, he claims, are its evil consequences in years to come: its mental and physical effects on the children of future generations. Says Dr. Schweitzer: "It is not for the physicist, choosing to take into account only the radiation from the air, to say the decisive word on the dangers of nuclear tests. That right belongs to the biologists and physicians who have studied internal as well as external radiation, and those physicists who pay attention to the facts established by the biologists and physicians. . . . When people deal with atomic weapons, no one can say to the other, 'Now the arms must decide,' but only, 'Now we want to commit suicide together, destroying each other mutually.' . . . At this stage we have the choice of two risks: the one lies in continuing the mad atomic arms race, with its danger of an unavoidable atomic war in the near future; the other in the renunciation of nuclear weapons, and in the hope that America and the Soviet Union, and the people associated with them, will manage to live in peace. The first holds no hope of a prosperous future; the second does. We must risk the second."

This book is a testament of conscience and of faith in the fundamental dignity and goodness of man. Man must, however, says Dr. Schweitzer, take a "gigantic leap" which "consists in finding the courage to hope that the spirit of good sense will arise in individuals and in peoples, a spirit sufficiently strong to overcome the insanity and the inhumanity."

SELBY-LOWNDES, JOAN. *The Blue Train*. New York 16: Abelard-Schuman, Limited, 404 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 253 pp., \$3.50. More than a success story of one great dancer through all the stages of his development, it presents an excellent picture of the colorful personalities and the creative geniuses who were responsible for the progress and revolutionary changes in ballet in the first two decades of the twentieth century. Diaghileff, Astafieva, Nijinska, Jean Cocteau—all come glowingly to life here. And against this rich background, the boy's personality is handled with sympathetic understanding and respect. The excitement of his first professional performances, the glamorous highlights of his success, as well as the rigor of his training, the long periods of waiting, the disappointments that are part of the career of a successful dancer are all portrayed with sensitivity, insight, and a fine sense of the dramatic. The pace is refreshingly fast.

SHAKESPEARE, WILLIAM. *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 200 pp., 35¢. Edited by Dr. Louis Wright and Virginia LaMar in Folger Library General Reader's Shakespeare series. Introduction, glossaries facing text, and illustrations.

SHEFTER, HARRY. *Faster Reading Self-Taught*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 388 pp., 50¢. A home-study course in fifteen minutes a day. A five-step plan to increase speed and comprehension.

SOBOL, D. J. *The Lost Dispatch*. New York 21: Franklin Watts, Inc., 699 Madison Avenue. 1958. 185 pp., \$2.95. Colonel Winslow, seated at his desk, motioned Wade into a wicker chair. "My brother, Colonel Robert



Winslow, is with Grant in Tennessee. I want you to take this message to him." He scribbled a note and handed it to Wade. And that night the boy went from the Union camp, knowing that he was considered a jinx and that this was the Colonel's way of getting rid of him.

As he journeyed toward Tennessee in the days that followed, he came to realize what had caused his ill luck, and at last met face to face with his nemesis, his double. But war had many tricks still to play, and Wade was to spend an interlude in the Confederate Army before he rejoined his Union brothers-at-arms at Antietam, and played a decisive part in the deciding of the battle.

STEEN, R. W. *The United States*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 70 Fifth Avenue. 1959. 576 pp., \$4.68. In the years since Jamestown was founded in 1607, American history has been a remarkable story of achievement. The story is so long and so complex that a one-volume history can no more than call attention to its major trends. In the preparation of this text every effort has been made to present the great personalities and the significant events of our history in a manner that high-school students will find both interesting and understandable. Great emphasis has been given to the development of the democratic tradition in the United States.

Many of the illustrations have historic significance, while others are included because they show the scenic beauty of America. The illustrations which begin the chapters have the theme "Beautiful America." The maps were prepared by Mrs. Eleanor Hanover Nance. The teaching aids were prepared by an experienced high-school teacher, Mrs. Gladys E. Steen. The questions provide an outline of each chapter. Combined with the lists of persons and terms to identify, they should guide the student to an excellent knowledge of the course.

STEINHOUSE, HERBERT. *The Time of the Juggernaut*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 480 pp., \$4.95. This novel is an evocation of a civilized country, its politics and its people, ten years after World War II, made human and immediate through intimate glimpses into the personal and professional lives of an American in Paris and the people he knows. Marty Richardson is the American. He is a dedicated journalist who has been abroad for fifteen years and is now Paris correspondent for a big U. S. radio network. Marty is a top reporter and he loves three difficult things: the truth, France, and Franka Thorens.

France is deeply involved with the Algerian situation. Marty is a man who must have every side of the picture—not a popular attribute in a time of national crisis—and he finds he cannot remain neutral. The author shows you Paris—with love and exasperation—but mainly with love. But this Paris, at least for Marty and Franka, is too good to last. It is 1955. The Cold War, in France as elsewhere, sets factions at each other's throats, and when an outsider like Marty Richardson speaks up, he becomes the natural scapegoat.

STEVENSON, R. L. *Kidnapped*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 284 pp., 35¢. A best-loved adventure story set in Scotland. Introduction and glossary by Hardy R. Finch, English Chairman in Greenwich, Connecticut, High School. Illustrated.

STREATFEILD, NOEL. *Queen Victoria*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 190 pp. \$1.95. The story of what happened at Kensington Palace on the morning of June 20, 1837, is probably as well known in England as the tale of Cinderella. At the early hour of six o'clock,

the eighteen-year-old Victoria was awakened and told that there were visitors to see her. With her fair, straight hair falling to her shoulders and a cotton wrap over her nightgown, she went downstairs—to learn that she was Queen of England. At the time of Victoria's birth, few people thought that the tiny princess would someday rule Great Britain. Yet the round-cheeked, blue-eyed girl who succeeded William IV to the throne proved to be a great queen, and her 64-year reign is one of the most celebrated in English history.

THACKERAY, W. M. *Vanity Fair*. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 630 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 766 pp., 75¢. Panoramic masterpiece of upper-class English society in early nineteenth century. Introduction by Professor Lionel Stevenson of Duke University.

THOMPSON, S. L. *Outdoor Rambles*. New York 18: Longman, Green and Company, 119 West 40th Street. 1958. 157 pp., \$3.50. This book is an enticing invitation to the reader to enjoy more fully the world around him, simply by acquiring "the hearing ear and the seeing eye." The author is not a naturalist by profession, but by inclination, and his writing is unburdened with jaw-breaking botanical, ornithological, or zoological terms. He simply takes his readers for a walk in the woods, a paddle down a river, or a weekend in the country and gently points out to them the sights and sounds that reveal the fascinating lives of the varied creatures that surround us.

Not only does he illumine the most commonplace scenes by his enthusiasm, but he delights in the oddities of nature. He tells of the insect that is indistinguishable from a twig; the stinky caterpillar that protects itself as the skunk does; the bird that can slip through the reeds, giving us the expression "thin as a rail"; the plants that eat insects; the spider's exquisite cunning. All this he recounts in the delightful conversational style that has won him devoted readers and radio listeners, and eager companions on his nature rambles.

VON HAGEN, V. W. *The Sun Kingdom of the Aztecs*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company, 2231 West 110th Street. 1958. 127 pp., \$2.95. "The garden of the world!" said one of Cortes' soldiers when he marched into Moctezuma's magnificent city of Tenochtitlan in 1519. "It was like the enchantments they tell of in legends." And so it was, for the Aztec civilization is one of the most fabulous in history. Here were a people who, in less than 350 years, literally built a stone city on water, who established an empire over half the great land of Mexico, and developed a way of life so rich and luxurious that even old Spanish soldiers who had seen Constantinople and Rome were struck with awe.

Who were the Aztecs? How did they come to build this beautiful city in the middle of Lake Texcoco? How did they live? Why did they worship their gods in such a terrible fashion? These and many other fascinating questions are answered in this book by a well-known author who is famous for his archaeological explorations in Mexico and South America.

WARNER, OLIVER. *Victory — The Life of Lord Nelson*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Company, 34 Beacon Street. 1958. 411 pp., \$6.50. Nelson is one of that small group of heroes in whom interest never wanes. Joan of Arc, Napoleon, Nelson, Lincoln and Lee: these are the great ones, the audacious and endearing people about whom there will always be fresh interpretations and the piecing together of new evidence. Oliver Warner has written about Nelson not in exclusively maritime terms but as a man, a man who was exalted, kindly and a genius at sea, and who was vain and vulnerable

ashore. His love affair with Emma, Lady Hamilton, is the dangerous and irresistible second act in a great play. He demeans himself in his love for her and in the way in which he shows off with her on leave. And yet the all-or-nothing of their affair drove him to sea again, where psychologically he could always be happier than on land, and so drove him to the highest hazard of his career, Trafalgar.

**WESTERMEIER, C. P.** *Who Rush to Glory*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, LTD. 1958. 272 pp., \$6. Among the thousands who answered President McKinley's call for volunteers to fight in the Spanish-American War, there were three patriotic men who conceived, almost simultaneously, the idea of creating cowboy volunteer cavalry regiments to lead the United States forces against the enemy. This book recounts the story of these three men—Theodore Roosevelt, Jay L. Torrey, and Melvin Grigsby, leaders, respectively, of the First, Second, and Third United States Volunteer Cavalry Regiments—and of the three reputedly cowboy regiments.

News concerning the regiments immediately captured the fancy of the press. In the ensuing months of this short war—only 115 days—journalists followed in detail the recruiting, training, travels, trials, successes, tragedies, and even the mustering out of these three army units, and it is upon their newspaper reports that Mr. Westermeier relies for material for his account of the Cowboy Volunteers of 1898 and their leaders. Of the three regiments, only Roosevelt's Rough Riders actually met the enemy, but the other two faced foes almost as real. Grigsby's Cowboys fought their sickening battle in foul-smelling encampments against disease and boredom; tragedy and death plagued Torrey's Terrors, and their hopes and tenacity shattered amid scenes of disappointment and inactivity.

**WHIPPLE, A. B. C.** *Famous Pirates of The New World*. New York 22: Random House, 457 Madison Avenue. 1958. 180 pp., \$1.95. At the lookout's scream, the captain came running. A strange ship approached over the horizon with a black flag flapping from its mast. Pirates! Two hundred years ago, when piracy was at its height, this one word was enough to send shivers down a brave man's spine. For then there was no navy strong enough to quell the unscrupulous seagoing gangsters who tortured sailors, stole their cargo, and burned their ships at will. No waters were safe from the blood-thirsty leaders and their greedy crews, and world trade was in danger of extinction.

In this book you will meet the dreaded Blackbeard, cunning Captain Flood, lawless men like Pierre le Grand and Dixey Bull, and even women pirates who wore men's clothes and fought with knives and guns. You will see what it was like when the only law was pirate law. Of course, not all of the pirates were successful; not all of them were cruel. But they were all thieves and for a long time they struck terror in the hearts of seafaring men.

**WILKIE, K. E.** *John Sevier, Son of Tennessee*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1958. 192 pp., \$2.95. Pioneer, soldier, statesman, and one of the founders of the Republic, John Sevier carved Tennessee out of the wilderness and became its first governor. John Sevier grew up in the wild Shenandoah Valley and at sixteen could out-shoot and out-ride any man at Smith's Creek. He married Sarah Hawkins and moved to the Watauga country where he founded the town of New Market and built a fort. Then came the Revolution, with the Indians helping the British, and the entire seaboard burst into flame. As a captain in the militia, Sevier

defended his mountains against their combined forces and joined Francis Marion, South Carolina's "Swamp Fox," on swift, desperate forays.

When North Carolina deeded the frontiersmen over to Congress, Sevier formed and governed the independent state of Franklin in what is now Tennessee. Declared an outlaw, he had no legal right to lead an army, but, when the Cherokees rose in all their might, he rode to rescue helpless families, appearing like an avenging angel wherever he was needed most. A Cherokee chief said of John Sevier: "His flight is like the wind; his blow like the thunderbolt."

Sevier's exploits became legend. When he was arrested for treason against North Carolina, he actually escaped from the courtroom and galloped on to further adventures. As Tennessee's outstanding legislator, he served as governor six times and was elected to Congress for four terms. Throughout a hectic career he found time to farm his extensive lands and to raise seventeen children.

WILSON, JR., J. H. *Albert A. Michelson*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc., 8 West 40th Street. 1958. 190 pp., \$2.95. Albert Michelson was the greatest experimental physicist of his era and the first American to win the Nobel Prize for Physics. He measured the speed of light and the elasticity of the earth to a degree never achieved before. With an almost miraculous gift for accuracy, he invented the interferometer, and with it was the first to measure the satellites of Jupiter and the diameter of a star. Devising this most precise optical instrument in history, he toppled Newton's concepts of the existence of the ether. His experiments helped prove Einstein's theory of relativity and paved the way for nuclear development.

Science had always fascinated Michelson. As a boy in Nevada he dreamed of taking the rainbow apart to see what it was made of. But in the 1860's there was scant chance for scientific schooling, especially for a poor boy. When the opportunity arose to enter the Naval Academy at Annapolis, where he would receive the best technical education obtainable, young Michelson took the examination. But though he passed, he was rejected since all the appointments had already been made. In desperation he went to Washington and actually persuaded President Grant to appoint him illegally. Though weak on seamanship, he excelled in athletics and science.

Before Michelson was thirty, he invented the amazing interferometer and measured to within one part in two million the speed of light. With these measurements he became world famous. Then, in his sixties came his most dramatic achievement. No one had ever measured the diameter of a star. It was said to be impossible, even by means of the largest telescope in the world—but Michelson did it.

For all his dedication to science, Albert Michelson was a man of many talents—he painted watercolors for relaxation; played the violin for family gatherings; spent many hours on the tennis courts; and his greatest indulgence was towards his lovely daughters who adored their versatile father.

WHITE, T. H. *The Mountain Road*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 425 Fourth Avenue. 1958. 347 pp., \$3.95. The time is 1944. The setting: East China in flames. The characters: a New England major with his first command—a tough and surly American demolition unit isolated in the great China retreat of that turbulent year; Su-Piao, a strong and beautiful Chinese woman educated in America, who must join them over his

protest; and Kwan, a frosty Chinese colonel who loves his country but must help ravage it. The story of their adventures in one violent week on the only road into the mountains marks Theodore White's emergence as a major novelist.

### Pamphlets for Teacher-Pupil Use

*Annual Digest of State and Federal Labor Legislation.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 150 pp. 40¢. Covers laws enacted since October 15, 1956, and during 1957 by the state legislatures and the first session of the 85th Congress of the United States.

*Attitudes of High School Youth Toward Careers and Guidance.* New York 36: Scholastic Magazines, 33 West 42nd Street. 1958. 6 pp. This is a report of Poll Number 28 of the Institute of Student Opinion, sponsored by Scholastic Magazines. A summary of replies of 11,416 students in 284 junior and senior high-schools' tabulation of replies to 10 questions.

BRYAN, R. C. *Student Reactions and Merit Salary Schedules.* Kalamazoo: School of Graduate Studies, Western Michigan University. 1958. 67 pp. 50¢. Contains the views of one staff member of Western Michigan University with respect to the assessment of merit.

*Bulletin of Information: Scholastic Aptitude Test and Achievement Tests.* Princeton: College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, Box 592; or Box 27896, Los Angeles 27, California. 1958. 42 pp. Tells how to apply for tests, when and where to take them, and something about the way they are given.

*College Board Score Reports.* Princeton: College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, Box 592, or Box 27896, Los Angeles 27, California. 1958. 32 pp. 50¢. Prepared as a guide for counselors. Discusses the scores, their value, and their use; also available is a 12-page brochure, *Your College Board Scores* for students, briefly explaining the meaning of scores in the Scholastic Aptitude Test and their use in college admissions. Free, on request by schools.

EGNER, R. E., editor. *Bertrand Russell's Best.* New York 22: The new American Library of Literature, Inc., 501 Madison Ave., 1958. 128 pp. 50¢. A lively selection of some of the wittiest, most pungent and most pertinent ideas of an influential and controversial twentieth-century philosopher.

*College Teaching as a Career.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue. 1958. 32 pp. Provides useful information and wise insights for undergraduate students who have the qualities desired in teachers in any type of college or university.

*Concepts of Equation and Inequality.* New York 27: Commission on Mathematics, College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street. 1958. 11 pp. 15¢. Contains sample classroom unit for high-school algebra students.

*Decision for Research.* New York 10: American Heart Association, 44 East 23rd Street. 1958. 12 pp. Points out that many great questions in medicine are still unanswered. "We still do not know," it notes, "what makes the blood clot . . . or the heart beat . . . or why cells run wild and become cancerous . . . or why some babies are born imperfect. These and many other problems can and will one day be solved," the booklet stresses, "by people—and not by machines . . . by people who have learned there is no more glorious mission than to take part in this struggle for life."

*Defense Against Inflation — Policies for Price Stability in a Growing Economy.* New York 22: Committee for Economic Development (CED), 711 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 80 pp. 19 charts. Single copies, \$1.00; special arrangements for quantity orders for classroom or other educational use. Assesses the nature, the causes, and the results of inflation, and proposes public and private policies that will maintain price stability in an economy of growth and abundance. Also available from the same source is *THE CRUELEST TAX* by T. V. Houser, a pamphlet which presents in brief form the substance of the CED statement on national policy entitled *Defense Against Inflation* (17 pages, charts. Single copies, 50¢; special arrangements for quantity orders for classroom or other educational use.)

*Education in France, Number 3.* New York 21: Services Culturels Francias, 972 Fifth Avenue. 1958. 64 pp. A brief description of the education program in France.

*Education in Latin America.* Washington 6, D. C.: Pan American Union, Department of Cultural Affairs, Division of Education. 1958. 56 pp. A partial bibliography on modern educational trends and activities in Latin America. Limited to only books and articles that have appeared during the past ten years. Divided into a general bibliography and then one for each country in Latin America.

*Educational Aids for Schools and Colleges.* New York 17: Education Department, National Association of Manufacturers, 2 East 48th Street. 1958. 16 pp. Free. Describes instructional materials available to schools and colleges. Also includes criteria for the development of NAM classroom materials.

PRESIDENT EISENHOWER. *Program for the Near East.* Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of State. 1958. 20 pp. An address before the U. N. Assembly, August 13, 1958.

*Employment Opportunities for Women in Legal Work.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 40 pp. 20¢. Summarizes the progress of women in the legal field, the preparation needed, and the prospective opportunities for women as practicing attorneys and in salaried positions where legal training is required.

EVANS, L. H. *UNESCO: Problems and Prospects.* Chicago 11: ALA Bulletin, 50 East Huron Street. 1958. 8 pp. A reprint from the *ALA Bulletin*, October 1958. Discusses the limitations of the present program and operations and the kind of job UNESCO should be doing.

*FAO and the World Food Problem.* Washington 25, D. C.: FAO of the United States North American Regional Office, 1325 C Street, N. W. 1958. 12 pp. Free. Discusses the food problem in which half of the world's 2,700 million people do not get enough food for healthy existence. At the present time 77 nations are pledged to promote this cause of securing freedom from want. Also available is *Let There Be Bread* describing the work of the FAO.

GOLDENSON, R. M. *How To Use Television.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, 1771 N Street, N. W. 1958. 18 pp. Suggestions as to how to use television. Also a 16-page booklet, *The News-Broadcasting's First Responsibility*, in which John Daley speaks out on Canon 35 of the Canons of Judicial Ethics of the American Bar Association which forbids the broadcasting of courtroom proceedings and the taking of photographs during court sessions or recesses.

*Help for Handicapped Women.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 58 pp. 40¢. Describes restorative services for disabled



women through the vocational rehabilitation program and as it relates to rehabilitation.

*Help Yourself to Better Spelling.* Montclair, New Jersey: The Economics Press, Inc. P. O. Box 460. 1958. 16 pp. Minimum order 10 copies at 17 cents each. Suggestions on how to increase spelling efficiency.

HILL, WILHELMINA, and H. K. MACKINTOSH. *How Children Learn About Human Rights.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 20 pp. 15¢. Consists of sections on how the teacher can use the Universal Declaration of Human Rights to help children understand individual rights and responsibilities.

JOHNSON, M. C., and H. C. POOLE. *Junior-Year Science and Mathematics Students by Major Field of Study.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 60 pp. 45¢. This is the first nation-wide survey of junior-year college students majoring in science and mathematics. In November 1957 approximately 50,500 junior-year college students were majoring in science and mathematics.

*Know Your America Week.* Washington 5, D. C.: All American Conference to Combat Communism, 917 15th Street, N. W. 1958. 16 pp. Free. Suggestions for developing programs in observation of the Week, November 23-29, 1958. Also available is a 14-page twenty question-and-answer booklet.

*Life Insurance Fact Book.* New York 22: Institute of Life Insurance, 488 Madison Avenue. 1958. 126 pp. A reference book giving over-all statistics and factual information about the life insurance business. Data used are, for the most part, carried through 1957.

MECKEL, H. C.; J. R. SQUIRE; and V. T. LEONARD. *Practices in the Teaching of Composition in California Public High Schools.* Sacramento: Superintendent of Public Instruction. 1958. (June). 59 pp. Contains information about techniques on how to improve practices in the teaching of composition and some hints concerning development in the study of linguistics. Helpful to administrators in organizing the staff for appraising the teaching of composition in their own schools.

*Money Management, Your Health and Recreation Dollar.* Chicago 1, Illinois: Household Finance Corporation, Prudential Plaza. 1958. 36 pp. 10¢. While health and recreation are treated separately in the publication, the relationship between the two subjects is interwoven throughout the booklet. Emphasis is placed on maintaining the best possible health and obtaining the greatest enjoyment and satisfaction from leisure-time activities.

*Moving Forward Together.* Sewanka, New York: Central High-School District Number 2. R. L. Springer, Principal. 1958. 16 pp. The 28th annual reports by the principal for the school year 1957-58. Descriptive and pictorial. Printed.

*Navy History and Tradition.* Baltimore 2: United States Navy Recruiting Aids Facility, The Fallsway at Monument Street. 1958. 20 pp. A new booklet which is the first in a series covering the history and traditions of the United States Navy from its beginning to modern times. History presented in this form should be particularly palatable to America's high-school youths.

*Planning Schools for Use of Audio-Visual Materials,* third edition. Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958. 63 pp. \$1. Contains suggestions as to how obstacles to ready use of the many kinds of audio-visual materials now available can be overcome.



*Playground Equipment and Athletic Field Equipment.* Los Angeles 3: Jamison Manufacturing Company, 8800 South Mettler Street. 1958. 32 pp. Free. A new descriptive catalog and price list of equipment.

*Publication of the Department of State.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1958. 234 pp. \$1.25. A complete list of numbered publications of the U. S. Department of State published since January 1, 1953. Classified and arranged alphabetically for ease of reference.

*Report on the 9th Annual International Meeting.* Putney, Vermont: The Experiment in International Living. 1958. 117 pp. A digest of important emphases and issues brought before the conference held September 17-22, 1957.

*Science and Mathematics.* Tulsa: Superintendent of Schools. 1958. 36 pp. Annual report of the Superintendent of schools to the Tulsa Board of Education on the areas of instruction in science and mathematics.

*Securing and Keeping Good Teachers in California Public Schools.* Sacramento: Superintendent of Public Instruction. 1958 (April). 55 pp. A report of the 1957 California teacher recruitment conferences showing what can be done by cooperative effort. It also records recommendations which will lead to an adequate supply of qualified teachers.

*South Asia, A Teacher's Packet.* New York 22: The Asia Society, Inc., 18 East 50th Street. \$1.00. This is an experimental packet of materials on the countries of South Asia assembled by the Society as one of its activities to encourage opportunities for the study of Asia in American schools. Teachers should find it helpful in their teaching. Obviously, no packet can be all-inclusive in its coverage of usual materials, nor will each item that is included be of interest to every teacher. In this packet, secondary-school teachers will find more of interest than elementary teachers although one or two items have been included especially for the latter group. Included are booklets, pictures, and maps, one in color, entitled *Hammond's Superior Map of Asia and the Western Pacific*. What the South has tried to do, within the limits of modest cost and availability in quantity, is to provide a selection of some materials which are attractive and interesting, reasonably up-to-date and objective and which will assist teachers and students in studying about these countries of Asia as a supplement to textbooks and other materials and resources already available in the school or community. This packet is being issued in a limited experimental edition.

*Strokes, A Guide for the Family.* New York 10: American Heart Association, 44 East 23rd Street. 1958. 18 pp. The booklet calls early rehabilitation "the most dynamic step in current treatment" of strokes and adds that doctors have found that it helps many stroke patients live and work again to their full capacity. Available from local Heart Associations, it was prepared primarily for persons who live with or care for the stroke patient. In addition to describing the nature of strokes, it gives specific pointers on how the family can help in the patient's recovery. It suggests a number of self-help devices that stroke patients can use during the rehabilitation process and discusses the problems of patients with speech difficulties. The booklet also lists a number of recommendations that doctors have for families of patients who may require care over a long period of time.

*Student Guide.* Staten Island 2, New York: Port Richmond High School, James V. Tague, Principal, Innis Street and St. Joseph's Avenue. 1958. 68 pp. (8½" x 11"). Printed. Stiff cover. An attractive well-prepared handbook for students and parents. Contains 9 sections—This is Port Richmond,

Your School. Planning Your High School Course; Description of Courses; The Road to Graduation; Student Government; Student Activities; When You Need Help and Guidance; After High School—College; Parents, Alumni, and the Community; index.

*Students' Handbook.* Malverne, New York: Malverne Senior High School, J. K. Archer, Principal. 1958. 36 pp. (5½" x 8½") Printed. Stiff cover. This handbook for students and parents of the Malverne Junior and Senior High Schools describes the subjects offered by the schools, requirements for promotion and graduation, student organizations. Also discussed are such topics as "How To Study," "Conduct and Character," "Dress," "Use of the Library." An attractive, brief, and well-prepared handbook.

*Television in Instruction: An Appraisal.* Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 1958. 24 pp. \$1. A brief report of a seminar on the role of television in instruction which met in Washington, D. C., September 9-13, 1957. Also available is a 28-page *Tape Recording Catalog* (1958 supplement to the second edition, 50¢) listing tapes that can be obtained through this service.

*Time Off for Voting Under State Law.* Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards. 1958 revision. 20 pp. Current information about State laws permitting employees to take time off to vote during working hours. Arranged by States.

TURNER, J. S. *Conventions: An American Institution.* Cincinnati 2: International Association of Convention Bureaus, 714 Union Central Building. 1958. 144 pp. Discusses the subject of conventions, their values, their powers, and their procedures.

*Using the Iowa Tests of Educational Development for College Planning.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 West Grand Avenue. 1957 (September, second edition). 64 pp. This publication brings together into one summary report the major research findings relating Iowa test scores to college success. It also provides a number of conversion tables and charts to assist in identifying gifted students and in predicting individual students' probabilities for success in various types of college programs. Also available from the same source is an 11-page brochure, *Planning College Scholarship and Admissions Examination Programs*. This is a statement of policies and principles by the SRA Advisory Committee on state and nation-wide Testing Programs.

*Within Our Schools.* Garden City, New York: Garden City Public Schools. 1958. 16 pp. A handbook for students and parents containing information on the school calendar, the school district, the community, PTA, Citizens Advisory Committee on Education, personnel, the budget, the school program, schedule, etc.

*Your First Job.* New York 17: National Association of Manufacturers, 2 East 48th Street, 1958. 32 pp. A new educational aid which not only provides helpful guidance to the high-school student or graduate on getting a job, but describes the real world of economics which he is entering. "Because jobs are so important," the booklet tells the student, "it is a good thing to take a little time to look at the business system in which you will be making your living and to see what it means to you and your future. This booklet explains the mutual rights and responsibilities of both employer and employee, noting that "as soon as you get a job, you become part of an economic team," and it is important to know "the things you and your employers should expect from each other."

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## *News Notes*

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### SECOND ANNUAL MEETING OF THE PRESIDENT'S COUNCIL ON YOUTH FITNESS WITH THE PRESIDENT'S CITIZENS ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON FITNESS OF AMERICAN YOUTH

At Fort Ritchie, Maryland, on September 7, 1958, members of the President's Citizens Advisory Committee assembled to promulgate plans and recommendations to the President's Council on Youth Fitness for implementing action programs at the national, state, and local levels in carrying forward the President's program on Youth Fitness. In a letter to Secretary of the Interior, the Honorable Fred A. Seaton, Chairman of the President's Council on Youth Fitness, President Eisenhower said in part "The health and vigor of our young citizens guarantee the future life and spirit of the Republic. We must, therefore, continue to emphasize the full preparation of our youth in every way—physical, emotional, mental, social, and spiritual—so that they may be equal to the great challenge they will inherit." Thus, the Challenge was placed before the assembled delegation whose purpose it was to advance effective recommendations to stimulate action programs in this vital area. Much has been accomplished since the first meeting of these two groups at West Point last year. However, Dr. Shane McCarthy, Executive Director of the President's Council, was most anxious to continue the momentum of the first year's work on this important program.

The Conferees, representing various professions, businesses, radio and television, labor, voluntary services, publishers, professional organizations, governmental agencies, and departments, met in group work sessions for two days, formulating recommendations to the President's Council.

At the concluding general session of the Second Annual Meeting of the President's Council on Youth Fitness with the President's Citizens Advisory Committee, Chairman Homer C. Wadsworth summarized the findings of the eight group sessions and the ten special interest groups by recommending a seven-point program for the continuing efforts toward enhancing the fitness of American youth. Secretary Fred A. Seaton, Chairman, President's Council on Youth Fitness, and other members of the Council were present to hear at first-hand Mr. Wadsworth's summation. Among those present, representing other Council members were Under Secretary Charles A. Finucane, Department of Defense; James T. O'Connell, Acting Secretary of Labor; Mrs. Bertha Adkins, Under Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare; and Albert M. Cole, Administrator, Housing and Home Finance Agency.

In receiving the verbal report, Secretary Seaton said, "We are most thankful to you for your candor and forthrightness, and want to compliment you for your time and effort to travel from all parts of the Nation for two days of long deliberation in behalf of the youth of this country. The President's Council has made a good start. In this past year many things have happened to which we can point with pride: establishment of youth fitness committees

in colleges and universities; the American Medical Association has outlined how physicians can assist in local communities; numerous national conventions have adopted the fitness of youth as their themes; the District of Columbia Commissioners have announced the expansion of their Commissioners' Youth Council to include fitness; California has eight separate committees now active on youth fitness projects. I could enumerate many others but this indication suffices," concluded Secretary Seaton.

Chairman Homer C. Wadsworth gave a comprehensive report on the work of the group discussions and listed seven points for emphasis in the coming year by the President's Council on Youth Fitness. These were: (1) a systematic means for evaluating fitness; (2) development of an informational kit of simple aids to help communities help themselves; (3) a method of developing systematic public relations designed to assist youth-serving agencies to achieve aims at the operational level; (4) development of a clearinghouse function as a two-way street between the Council, the President's Citizens Advisory Committee, and the local Communities; (5) sponsorship of workshops in the various sections of the Nation to assist local projects and programs; (6) bringing together of all existing nation-wide youth-serving agencies to implement, expand, and coordinate programs for youth fitness; and (7) giving special attention to the leadership bottleneck and in-service training to augment the quality as well as the quantity of trained leaders for youth activities. In addition, Wadsworth made some other recommendations representing the group's thinking as to the organization and clarification of the roles of the President's Council on Youth Fitness and the President's Citizens Advisory Committee, and a more formalized organization of the Committee itself for more effective action. In conclusion, Mr. Wadsworth said, "Youth fitness should be high among our major objectives as a Nation; an objective to which we commit a full measure of our devotion and interest." Following Wadsworth's remarks, Shane MacCarthy, Executive Director, concluded the Second Annual Meeting. In part he said, "From this meeting, the Council and the staff have received inspiration and renewed vigor to carry forward our tremendous mission. We are heartened by the enthusiasm and determination with which you have participated in the deliberations here. With such cooperation we are assured that we have the support so necessary to this important task."

Throughout the conference there were two major suggestions which directly concerned all education and particularly secondary-school principals. They were: (1) a careful examination of existing fitness programs in our schools to determine if our boys and girls are receiving maximum benefits from these programs, and (2) close cooperation with local agencies in the-utilization of existing facilities and personnel in promoting Youth Fitness programs. In every community there are parents, leaders, and friends of young people who are willing to give of their time and energies. Principals can be of tremendous aid in helping to design a pattern for local action and then to help breathe life and substance into it.

#### IMPORTANCE OF DRIVER EDUCATION COURSES

Driver education programs for high-school youth, attacked by many critics as "frill" courses, are still the nation's greatest hope for dealing successfully with the continually growing problem of man and the motor vehicle. This is the belief of the National Commission on Safety Education which held its

Third National Conference on Driver Education at Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana, last September, with approximately 300 school and college people and safety officials attending. "The need for driver education is evident to anyone who observes human behavior on our streets and highways and who thoughtfully examines the available facts," reports the Commission. Statistics show that ownership and use of motor vehicles is steadily increasing and the number of licensed drivers is growing by leaps and bounds. "While the death rate per 100 million vehicle miles of travel is gradually decreasing," the Commission reports, "we still kill nearly 40,000 persons and injure hundreds of thousands every year through motor vehicle accidents. These accidents cost us more than four billion dollars annually."

Convinced that the immediate practical purpose of driver education is to develop the learner's ability to operate an automobile safely and efficiently, the Commission has worked closely with school officials in communities where driver education programs are in full swing. Today more than 11,000 high schools offer such courses, and both the number of programs and the student enrollment are increasing. Armed with facts and figures gleaned from reports from the many successful driver education programs already established in schools all over the country, conference participants spent their time studying ways of strengthening existing programs and exploring guidelines for extending and improving them. In workshop sessions, participants tackled every phase of driver education, with special emphasis on such topics as summer programs, teacher preparation, college programs, and financing. Taking part were state education agency representatives, school board members, driver education teachers, city and county school superintendents, parents, high-school principals, safety education supervisors, and professors and administrators in colleges and universities.

The Safety Commission served as administrator of the Conference and the following groups were co-sponsors: The Council of Chief State School Officers, American Driver and Safety Education Association, National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, plus the following National Education Association units—The National Association of Secondary-School Principals; American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; American Association of School Administrators; American Industrial Arts Association; Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Department of Rural Education; National Association of Public School Adult Educators; National Commission of Safety Education; National Council for the Social Studies; and National Science Teachers Association.

### THREE NEW SCIENCE FILMS

In step with current plans for strengthening the training of scientists in the United States, the Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, has released three new science films in biology. Stressing the significant roles played by micro-organisms in the biological world, these films show how man studies, uses, and controls bacteria.

*Bacteria: Laboratory Study*, shows characteristics of micro-organisms and proper methods for studying them. Contrasting the use of the telescope and microscope in revealing worlds beyond our own, the film opens by showing protozoa, algae, yeasts, and bacteria. The electron microscope is used to present photographs of viruses, the smallest known forms of life.

*Micro-organisms: Beneficial Activities* points out many common uses of bacteria in everyday life and indicates that most micro-organisms are beneficial to man. Beginning with an explanation of how micro-organisms produce changes in their environment and cause the formation of new substances, the film first shows the role of bacteria in the nitrogen cycle. Examples of other helpful activities are explained as they relate to the treatment of sewage, production of dairy and other food products, and the commercial production of antibiotics.

*Micro-organisms: Harmful Activities* explains how micro-organisms cause diseases and how they can be controlled. After showing some of the common methods developed for protection against disease and undesirable decomposition of foods, early scientists responsible for discoveries in this field are introduced. The industrial preparation of vaccines and antitoxins is shown and, with the help of animation, the nature of active and passive immunity is covered thoroughly. Such safeguards as water purification, milk pasteurization, and the use of ultraviolet radiations and chemical antiseptics show other methods of controlling the spread of disease-causing micro-organisms.

Agencies interested in considering any of the films in this series may obtain preview prints from the Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, at no cost other than return postage. Prints of these films can be purchased from the Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, and from the Educational Film Library Association, 250 West 57th Street, New York 19, New York. Each film is fifteen minutes in length, sound-color, \$150; black and white, \$75. These films, like all other Indiana University productions, are available on an annual rental plan which leads to ownership. Inquire for details for this plan by writing to the Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

#### FORD FOUNDATION GRANTS FOR TV IN SCHOOLS

The Ford Foundation, 477 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York, has granted almost one million dollars for a national program in the use of educational television in schools throughout the nation during the school year 1958-59. Included are a total of 450 schools in eleven cities and five regional and state school systems. These cities, together with the number of participating schools and the amount of the grant to each, are: Atlanta, Georgia (53 schools, \$69,880); Detroit, Michigan (14 schools, \$77,938); Evansville and Evansville region, Indiana (62 schools, \$75,000); Kansas City, Missouri (3 schools, \$30,325); Louisville and Louisville region, Kentucky (25 schools, \$97,499); Miami, Florida (27 schools, \$89,051); Milwaukee, Wisconsin (12 schools, \$60,800); State of Nebraska (45 schools, \$112,000); Norfolk, Virginia (10 schools, \$48,000); State of North Carolina (58 schools, \$95,000); Oklahoma City and Oklahoma State, Oklahoma (121 schools, \$150,874); Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (16 schools, \$60,240); Wichita, Kansas (4 schools, \$22,248); total 450 schools, \$988,855.

#### UNIVERSITY CONSULTS WITH HIGH SCHOOLS ON SUPERIOR STUDENTS

Consultation with Michigan high schools concerning the handling of superior students is part of a three-year program to be undertaken by the University of Michigan's College of Literature, Science, and the Arts. The program is



financed by a grant of \$54,000 from the Carnegie Corporation, and is carried out under the direction of Dr. Robert C. Angell, director of the Honors Council in the Literary College. Dr. Frank O. Copley, professor of Latin, is consultant to high schools under the program, and will begin his direct work with the schools in the spring semester. About half of the Carnegie grant is to be used for the work with schools, and Professor Copley will work out sets of recommendations for the various types of high schools in Michigan and consult with principals and superintendents about their use.

The remainder of the grant will be used in strengthening the Honors Council program itself. Though honors courses have been available to juniors and seniors at the University for many years, the year 1957-58 marked the first full-scale Honors Program beginning at the freshman level. Special courses or honors sections were made available in nearly all introductory courses, and similar plans were put into operation this fall at the sophomore level.

After careful study of high-school records, the Honors Council selected 153 incoming freshmen last fall, about half of whom had won awards or certificates in the National Merit Scholarship program. About forty-eight freshmen were admitted last February. Approximately four out of five of the freshmen finished the semester with superior academic records, despite the additional work required of them under the Honors Program.—*Letter to Schools from the University of Michigan.*

### RUSSIAN EDUCATION

Soviet authorities are far from satisfied with the pattern of Russian education, according to a recent Moscow dispatch by Max Frankel in the *New York Times*. Frankel says that a new system to be tried will send more Russian children out to work at the age of 15, and give them high-school courses in the evening, or by mail. The idea is to meet the Soviet need for skilled workers and technicians in almost all phases of the economy. Criticism of the Russian system, in which Premier Krushchev has joined, has centered on the fact that too many youngsters were ill-prepared for available jobs, and that too many others were receiving extended academic training for no particular end—which made them disdainful of work. The new system will get a tryout around the country this year. Frankel says some Soviet sources close to the situation believe the plan is certain to be adopted universally in Russia.—*Education U. S. A.*

### CARTOONIST AWARDED MEDAL FOR SERVICE TO EDUCATION

Herbert L. Block (Herblock), editorial cartoonist for the *Washington Post* and *Times-Herald* who is syndicated by the Hall Syndicate to 233 other daily newspapers throughout the country, was awarded the *Parents' Magazine* 1958 Medal for his forthright portrayal of the Nation's educational needs. Presentation of the medal was made by George J. Hecht, publisher of *Parents' Magazine*, at a luncheon attended by leading educators, Federal government officials, and education writers. Mr. Hecht noted that Herblock has been "consistently in the front lines of the fight for better schools, vigorously depicting United States shortages of classrooms and teachers, and strongly urging Federal aid to education." He added that Herblock's cartoons had played an important role in the recent passage of the National Defense Education Act, first such Federal aid measure in more than a quarter-



century. The Parents' Magazine Medal is awarded to persons who have rendered outstanding service to children. Several of Mr. Block's top cartoons on education appear in the special October 1958 issue of *Parents' Magazine* devoted to "U. S. Schools, A Report on the Progress and Problems of Education."

### FILMSTRIP ON CURRENT AFFAIRS

The world's attention on Asia, where the struggle between the United States and Communist China has erupted fiercely, gives special timeliness to a new filmstrip on Southeast Asia, one of the greatest prizes in the struggle between the West and Communism in Asia. *Ferment in Southeast Asia*, which is being released this November as the second in the 1958-1959 series of the New York Times Filmstrips on Current Affairs, brings into focus one of the lesser-known areas of contemporary studies—the young republics of awakening Southeast Asia.

The filmstrip ranges over the strategic sprawling region, with its vital resources—Malayan rubber, Indonesian tin, Philippine hemp, massive rice crops from Burma and Thailand. It takes up the heritage of colonialism, the pressing problems of political instability and economic and social handicaps. It arrays Southeast Asia's ties to democracy against Asian Communist imperialism and concludes with a section on "Southeast Asia in Balance." This filmstrip is in 58 black and white frames, for 35-mm projectors, with graphic current and historical photographs, cartoons, maps, and charts. Accompanying the filmstrip is a discussion manual that reproduces each frame and adds below it supplementary information for each frame. The manual also has a general introduction to the subject, discussion questions related to sections of the filmstrip, suggested activities, and suggested reading. The entire series is available for \$15; individual filmstrips cost \$2.50 each. The filmstrips are available from the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, 229 West 43rd Street, New York 36, New York.

### SURVEY OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

Questionnaires were sent to various high schools where College Day or College Night programs were being held. This was a simple statement asking students what college they planned to attend. This question was asked the same students prior to and approximately a week after the events. The 286 pupils, on the questionnaires to see what effect College Day or Night attendance had on college choice (not necessarily final choice) given approximately one week prior to and after the College Day or Night program, revealed the following:

No change in choice .....	234
Change from one college to another .....	15
Change from undecided to choice .....	8
Remained undecided .....	14
Changed from college choice to undecided .....	15

The committee did not speculate on the results except to state that high-school guidance people should now have a better understanding of the influential factors and be willing to utilize all of the resources of the community.

Although the influence of the high school has doubled since the thirties, 85% of the influences still lie outside of the school. As only 4.1% indicated the College Day or College Night programs were most influential in students choices, it becomes the principals' and guidance persons' responsibility to consider and weigh carefully the values of attendance against the cost in time and human energy involved. The committee will further investigate effective practice in counseling college-bound students—*The Bulletin*, Michigan Secondary School Association, Lansing, Michigan.

#### COST OF HIGHER EDUCATION UP TEN PER CENT

Everyone knows that the cost of attending college is rising, but just how much was revealed this week by Dr. Ernest V. Hollis, director of the College and University Administration branch of the U. S. Office of Education. For this school year, according to Dr. Hollis, both the cost of education itself and the cost of college living are up about ten per cent. For computing purposes, education means tuition, fees, books, and supplies. Cost of living includes travel (biggest increase), laundry, board, fraternity dues, etc. The year's total expenses in a public college will average about \$1,650 as compared with \$1500 for last year. And in private colleges, average expenses will be about \$2200 as against a straight \$2,000 last year. "The outlook is for still further hikes in education costs," predicted Dr. Hollis. "For next year and the next three or four years, we can expect an increase of about 10 to 15 per cent." There is some hope, however, that living costs will taper off a bit. Just for tuition and fees, Dr. Hollis reported, 1957-58 figures showed an increase over the past year of 9.2 per cent for private institutions. Dollarwise, the average jump was \$142 to \$155 in public colleges and \$495 to \$531 in private colleges. These increases are in keeping with figures released by Dr. Hollis last year showing that college costs had doubled since 1940.—*Education U. S. A.*

#### DRIVER EDUCATION AWARDS

Six states were named as winners of the Achievement Award for the extent and quality of their driver education programs conducted during the 1957-1958 school year. The board of judges for the eleventh annual National High School Driver Education Award Program announced that Massachusetts, Michigan, Delaware, Oklahoma, Utah, and Vermont were selected to receive the Nation's top honor in this field. The judges also designated Progress Awards to six states—Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Texas, and Montana. At the same time, it was disclosed that an all-time record number of schools and students participated in the programs.

Thomas N. Boate, manager of the Accident Prevention Department of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies, 60 John Street, New York 38, New York, which sponsors this officially authorized national driver education program, said the awards this year were based on a stricter evaluation system. The basic evaluation changes were made to conform with standards recommended by two national education conferences sponsored by the National Commission on Safety Education.

"The evaluation procedure was sharply revised to place more emphasis on the quality of instruction given than on the number of schools participating in the program," Mr. Boate declared. "We are hoping that the stiffer re-

quirements will encourage states to raise their standards so that new drivers will be better prepared for a lifetime of driving."

Mr. Boate reported that during the 1957-1958 academic year a record number of 11,846 schools offered driver education courses and an unprecedented total of 1,219,065 students received instruction. These figures topped the previous highs of 11,273 schools and 1,123,164 participating students recorded in the 1956-1957 academic year. The 1957-1958 school total represented a five per cent increase over the previous year and the enrollment total showed an increase of 8.5 per cent over 1956-1957.

"This year marked another milestone in the growth of the award program," Mr. Boate said. "The important thing we are striving for is that proper driving attitudes be implanted in young drivers. We will continue to report school and student participation in all types of driver education courses. But, for the purpose of determining awards, the program will only tabulate the complete driver education courses offering a minimum of 30 hours of classroom instruction and six hours of behind-the-wheel training." He added that driver education should be included as a "must" basic course in any high-school curriculum and that "award credit will not be granted unless the courses are taught by qualified teachers who have completed a state approved driver education teacher course."

#### HEALTH BULLETIN FOR TEACHERS

New teaching materials which supplement the recent series of the *Health Bulletin for Teachers*, "New Adventures in Meeting Health Problems," have been prepared by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, One Madison Avenue, New York 10, New York. These eight leaflets of *Suggested Student Activities and Projects* were prepared in response to a need expressed by educators for materials to help interpret the health implications of recent scientific discoveries, such as those discussed in the Health Bulletins. The leaflets suggest ways of helping students to evaluate what they see and hear in this ever-changing world, and to develop skills in solving problems scientifically. The publications are planned for use in high-school science, health, social studies, and other classes.

#### THE SCIENCE TEACHER

The National Science Teachers Association, a department of the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., publishes the *Science Teacher* monthly except January, June, July, and August. This magazine, now expanded to 64 pages per issue, is, without doubt, a *must* for the demands made upon today's science teachers. Herein are articles and other information that keeps the teacher abreast of developments in science and in methods of teaching science to the Nation's youth. Membership in the Association at \$6.00 per year assures the teacher of receiving this valuable magazine during his membership year. Many other publications are also available through this organization, such as *Its Time for Better Elementary-School Service*, a recently issued 64-page booklet. This is a report of an Association Conference and is available at \$1.00 per copy.

#### EDUCATION IN THE NEWS

The 1958 issue of *Look* magazine contains an 11-page picture-and-text story called "Education, Fall 1958." Three main ingredients make up the

11-page package in its October 14 issue—a picture-story of 17-year-old Terry Brown, senior at San Francisco's Lincoln High School; a piece "The Frightening Challenge of Russia's Schools" written exclusively for *Look* by Lawrence G. Dertrick, United States Commissioner of Education; and a "Forecast" of things to come. Commissioner Derthick's article, out-growth of his recent tour of 100 Soviet schools, and written with *Look* staffer, George B. Leonard, reflects the sobering revelation that the Russians believe they will reach and over-reach the U. S. A. through education. "We were astonished," he says, "at Russia's total commitment to education." He tells about observing a chemistry class of teacher trainees who had just learned that their course was to be extended from four to five years. They faced an unexpected delay in being graduated, starting jobs, and getting married. But they didn't resent the change. In fact, he says, when told of it, "Their faces lit up. You would have thought some Russian Santa Claus had just presented them with a wonderful surprise. To them, as to most Soviet youth, an extra year's education is a rare privilege."

The third section of this special article is a "Forecast" based on interviews with educators. Here is what *Look* predicts for U. S. education: pupils will be grouped by ability; comprehensive high schools (1,000-plus enrollment) will set the pattern; curriculums will be harder; the school year will be longer; non-academic schooling will be reduced, but not eliminated; and much school money will come from the Federal government.—*Trends in School Public Relations.*

#### GOOD EATING

The National Dairy Council, 111 North Canal Street, Chicago 6, Illinois, announces the release of a *Guide To Good Eating*, second edition. This visual presents dramatically the new four group, daily food pattern. The plan is a revision of the well-known seven-food group pattern. The information presented in this new edition is based on essentially the same principals as the seven-food group plan. It is hoped that simplification of this food selection guide, which represents a major step forward in modernizing nutrition teaching, will aid professional, educational, and consumer leaders in furthering the lay public's understanding of the fundamentals of a diet adequate for good health. This guide is available as a poster, leaflet, or handout and may be purchased in quantity as follows: *A Guide To Good Eating*, poster, 20 cents each; leaflet, 4 cents each; handout, 1 cent each.

#### SCIENCE COURSES FOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

The Manufacturing Chemists' Association offers for students a series of 31 unusual chemistry laboratory experiments. They have already been requested in classroom quantities by more than 6,000 schools. Designed for easy integration into the curriculum, they can serve, as a whole, to provide students with the equivalent of a full-year's course in the subject. The student is asked to make a report on the experiment in his own manner, and to include evidence for his conclusions. This evidence is based upon careful observation in the laboratory. In no case is the student asked to supply a word in a prefabricated sentence. Open-ended experiments are distinctive because students cannot anticipate the answers before they start the experiments. They must pose questions to nature, and then find the answers. Further, on the basis of their laboratory experience, they are asked to make predictions and then verify

or disprove them. Each experiment is tied into real life situations. The "What's it good for?" question has definite and interesting answers on each Student's Guide under the heading "Practical Applications."

Separate instructions for the teacher are provided with each experiment. These instructions suggest how the experiment may be used, tell ways of performing the experiment, and give typical results of a try-out. The experienced teacher may not need such extended suggestions, but the teacher of less experience will find the Information Sheets a valuable guide. Materials used are those commonly found in high-school laboratories. Sometimes alternate methods of doing the same experiment are suggested. Teacher and student materials are punched for two and three-hole binders, permitting preservation for future use.

The Manufacturing Chemists' Association offers, without charge, to each school in which chemistry is taught: thirty Student Guide Sheets and one Teacher Information Sheet for each of the 31 experiments. These quantities are sufficient to serve an average-sized chemistry laboratory class and may be used by several classes and from year to year. Teachers wishing to duplicate the experiments for use in their own classes but not for sale may do so. Printed copies additional to the free allotment, however, may be secured from MCA at the cost of two cents each. For complete information about this chemistry program and a similar one in general science, write to Dr. William E. Chace, Director of Education, Manufacturing Chemists' Association, Inc., 1625 Eye Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

#### TRAFFIC PROBLEMS TACKLED BY HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

Careless and hazardous drivers may soon find their dangerous behavior recorded on film — not by police, but by local high-school students working on traffic safety programs. In their clubs and through other activities, students will analyze their findings and embark on a number of activities to correct the situation. This is one of numerous student projects expected to be developed under the new student traffic program announced by Norman Key, secretary of the National Commission on Safety Education of the National Education Association. Aim of the program is to help high school students attack the problem of traffic accidents which have taken more lives in their age group than in any other. The program is also expected to influence traffic safety among all citizens.

A service of the NEA's Commission on Safety Education, the program is supported by a grant from the Firestone Tire and Rubber Company. Collaborating are the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, driver and safety education leaders, and other groups. "While-driver education is effective for safety among those who are privileged to take it," said Mr. Key, "more widespread involvement of youth over a much longer span of their high-school career is urgently needed." In 1957, Mr. Key pointed out that motor vehicle death rate among people 15 to 24 years of age was over three times that for the five to 14 age group. A sharp rise in the accident rate of students now occurs at the age when they advance from elementary school into high school.

Choice of projects, Mr. Key added, will be up to students in individual schools. But the national program will be guided by an advisory committee of educators and business-industry representatives. Consultation by safety education specialists will be available to state advisory committees and other

leading groups. To encourage participation in the program, materials outlining productive ideas and procedures are available. A handbook includes suggestions on forming traffic safety committees, ideas on obtaining school and community-wide participation, ways of evaluation projects, and planning activities.

### MATERIALS ON AVIATION EDUCATION

The Materials of Instruction Committee of the National Aviation Education Council announces the publication of *Pictures, Pamphlets, and Packets*, a 16-page source list of more than 240 free and inexpensive aviation education teaching aids. Included in the list are booklets, pamphlets, pictures, study units, maps, bibliographies, bulletins, charts, films, etc., produced by more than 50 aircraft manufacturers, aircraft accessories manufacturers, the airlines, government agencies, and private organization. Listings were limited to those items costing \$1.00 or less; the majority of materials listed are available to teachers and school administrators *without charge*. *Secondary school teachers* of general science, geography, history, physics, economics, chemistry, mathematics, and even foreign languages will find helpful materials to enrich and supplement regular classroom instruction. Listings include information on aviation careers, weather, theory of flight, missiles and rockets, space exploration, air transportation, aircraft engines, history of aviation, air express, air mail, etc. Single copies of *Pictures, Pamphlets, and Packets* may be obtained free from National Aviation Education Council, 1025 Connecticut Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

### PHYSICAL EDUCATORS ANSWER SPUTNIK'S CHALLENGE

Attacks on the "frills" of health and physical education in the public schools, which began to fly in all directions after the launching of the satellites into outer space, are answered in the September issue of the *Journal of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, official magazine of the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. The entire issue is devoted to the "Challenge of the Space Age," with statements from the officers of the Association outlining the role of educators.

Simon A. McNeely, specialist for health, physical education, and athletics in the U. S. Office of Education, reports on the Seminar sponsored by the U. S. Army to consider the physical requirements of the individual soldier under the Army's new "pentomic concept" of warfare. The Seminar recommended the expansion of school facilities for physical education programs, stating that tomorrow's soldier can best serve his country and himself if he has participated in a variety of sports and other recreational skills.

Arthur A. Esslinger, AAHPER president-elect and professor of physical education at the University of Oregon, discusses the program of health, physical education, and recreation in the schools of the USSR. Physical education there is considered an instrument of national policy and receives strong government support.

The first report from the AAHPER Physical Fitness Test appears in this issue. Paul Hunsicker, University of Michigan, and chairman of the Physical Fitness Research Committee of AAHPER, presents tabulations from the 8,500 boys and girls so far tested. Examination of the averages shows that the physical performance of American children is nothing to brag about!



More emphasis on physical training is needed in our schools, the research findings show.

### EDUCATIONAL TV

"... In these days of the teacher shortage and the high cost of school facilities, educational television can become a valuable means of bringing the teacher and pupil together. Television can never replace classroom teachers. Good classroom teachers will always be essential; but their influence can be extended by television, and where there is no teacher, ETV can fill a gap. A dramatic story about this has its origin right here in Pittsburgh.

"The story begins — as many stories do — with a desire to fulfill a need. In this case the need of providing instruction in physics, occasioned by the shortage of competent physics teachers. A committee appointed by the National Academy of Sciences surveyed the field of physics teachers, and chose Professor Harvey E. White to prepare a television course. Professor White's qualifications were outstanding. He had 25 years experience in teaching physics to college freshmen and was vice chairman of the Department of Physics at the University of California at Berkeley. He agreed to undertake the assignment.

"During the 1956-57 school year, the entire course in physics was telecast from WQED to 35 high-school classes in Pittsburgh [Pennsylvania] and nearby communities. Hundreds of students who would otherwise never have taken physics were able to take the subject under an outstanding teacher.

"Nor does the story end with the conclusion of the live telecasts in 1957. High-School students in this area are still studying physics under Professor White's guidance through the facilities of WQED. This is possible because the original 162 lessons were filmed while they were being telecast. These films are now being used by other schools throughout the country. Last year, some 100,000 high-school students went to physics classes on film.

"The Harvey White story, which started here in Pittsburgh, illustrates the in-service potential that educational television holds for the future. It dramatizes the use of television in the school to meet the critical need for science teachers, a need that is accentuated daily by the march of events in the age of space. A few days ago arrangements were completed for Professor White to offer nationally a course in advanced physics designed for high-school physics teachers, on a commercial network, beginning in October." —From an address by Henry T. Heald, president of the Ford Foundation, at a luncheon in the Dusquesne Club, Pittsburgh, September 19, 1958, marking the inauguration of a second channel by the Metropolitan Pittsburgh Educational Television Station (WQED)

### ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

A guide for the English Language Arts, Grades 7, 8, and 9 for the Davenport junior high schools was completed this past summer. The intent of the guide is to provide a pattern for teaching English at the junior high-school level. The contents "set the stage" for the development of thematic units, incorporating ability levels, reading and literature, written and oral communication, listening and observing, the use of mass media of communication, and instruction in grammar and spelling. Supplementary materials designed for individual teacher use are included in the appendixes along with three model units. During the year, additional reserve units are being developed for the



use of all junior high-school teachers. The guide is not a "course of study" in English; rather it is a guide to a generalized pattern for instruction in the English Language Arts. Individual copies are \$2.00 and are available through the Davenport Community School District, 1001 Harrison Street, Davenport, Iowa.

#### THE PRESERVATION OF INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM

The Sidney Hillman Foundation has made available in reprint form, "Where Government May Not Trespass," a *New York Times* article by Henry Steele Commager, professor of history at Columbia University and author of more than a dozen books of history and biography, including *Freedom, Loyalty, and Dissent*. This special reprint, Number 15 in the Sidney Hillman Reprint Series, is available, with an accompanying teacher's guide, to interested educators (in quantities of up to 100 without charge) from the Sidney Hillman Foundation, 15 Union Square West, New York 3, New York.

In this analysis of a pressing civil liberties problem, the author states that the wishes of the Founding Fathers with respect to the preservation of individual freedom, are being denied. Americans would be the first to condemn the "thought police" systems of Nazi Germany or present-day communist countries. Yet their intellectual freedom is being seriously threatened today by their own government. Since the second World War, we have witnessed the entry of government into areas previously regarded as immune from governmental invasion—the areas of ideas and their communication.

Professor Commager maintains that the framers of the Constitution set up a government which would not work "unless churches, press, universities, political parties, and private associations were free to inquire, discuss, and criticize." For if government controls thought, there is no true freedom. But though no United States citizen wants his freedom impaired or admits that this is happening today, Federal assumption of authority over ideas is on the increase.

#### PURCHASE M. E. A. BUILDING SITE IN EAST LANSING

The purchase by the Building and Site Committee on behalf of the Michigan Education Association of property on Saginaw Road near Abbott Road in East Lansing, totaling approximately 3.8 acres, was authorized by the Board of Directors at a special meeting held on the site on August 21. This attractive site with 450 feet on Saginaw Road extends 400 feet south in depth. Located in the beautiful Whitehills Estates subdivision, a part of the city of East Lansing, this choice parcel of land provides an ideal setting for the future home of the M. E. A.

Less than a mile north of Michigan State University, about three blocks from the new East Lansing High School, and a short distance from the East Lansing Junior High School, close to restaurants and housing accommodations, the building site is near to many facilities which will prove convenient for the many who visit the building. The Building and Site Committee was also authorized by the Board of Directors to proceed with the investigation of suitable building plans and the employment of an architect. All M.E.A. members will be proud to share in the development of this education center in East Lansing.

### A STUDY OF COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

The first nation-wide study of cooperative education in American colleges and universities has been announced in New York by Dr. Ralph W. Tyler, Study of Cooperative Education, 150 Clarissa Street, Rochester 8, New York, Chairman of the Study Committee on Cooperative Education and Director of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences. The project is supported by a grant of \$95,000 from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, a subsidiary of the Ford Foundation. Approximately 60 colleges and universities now have programs of cooperative education for some or all of their students. Under the cooperative plan, students alternate periods of work in school and in industry as a regular part of their degree programs.

The primary purposes of the Study of Cooperative Education are: (1) to conduct an objective, candid, and penetrating evaluation of the cooperative plan of education as it pertains to instructions of the United States granting the baccalaureate degree; (2) to make recommendations in the area of educational policy and experimentation and needs for further research, based upon, but not restricted to the findings of the evaluation; and (3) to disseminate the findings of the evaluation and the subsequent reflections upon these findings in regard to higher education through reports, articles, and addresses.

### NEW MODELS OF JACK-BOX FOR LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

Language Training Aids, Language Center, Boyds, Maryland has announced several new models of the Jack-Box for distributing sound of tape recorders, phonographs, or sound projectors to several sets of earphones. The new literature shows how the new models can be used in twelve different arrangements of language laboratories to create from 6 to 36 listening positions. According to the announcement these language laboratories can be assembled in a few minutes without tools since everything plugs together. Equipment may be used for a new inexpensive language laboratory or for expanding present facilities. Free illustrated literature is available by writing to Language Training Aids.

### HISTORY RECORDS FOR CLASSROOM USE

Columbia Records has recently released two record albums—*The Union* and *The Confederacy*. Each album is 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ " X 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ " in size. *The Union* album is bound in Union Blue linen, gold stamped; 60 pages. It includes essays by the noted historians, Bruce Catton, Clifford Dowdey, and Allan Nevins; and a discussion of the music by Richard Bales. It contains dozens of photographs and drawings of the battlefields, the soldiers, President Lincoln, and important documents relating to the Civil War. The record, included in the album, is made up of 22 musical selections and the "Gettysburg Address" by Raymond Massey, as Lincoln. *The Confederacy* album is bound in Confederate Grey linen, gold stamped; 32 pages. It includes essays by the noted historians, Bruce Catton and Clifford Dowdey and a discussion of the music by Richard Bales. It contains dozens of photographs and drawings of the battlefields, the soldiers, General Lee and famous Confederate commanders, and important documents relating to the Civil War. The record, included in this album, is made up of 10 musical selections and a reading by the Reverend Edmund Jennings Lee of General Robert E. Lee's Farewell Order to the Army

of Northern Virginia. These albums are available at \$10 each from Columbia Records, Educational Department, 799 Seventh Avenue, New York 19, New York.

### INDEPENDENT BUSINESS COLLEGES

The National Association and Council of Business Schools, Suite 407, 2400 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 9, D. C., has prepared an attractive brochure describing the independent business college field. This brochure is available to guidance counselors, high-school principals, and major public opinion leaders. It presents information in pictures and texts and indicates the modern trends among the better business colleges.

### LOCAL ACTION INFORMATION

The President's Committee on Scientists and Engineers now publishes a monthly newsletter, "Local Action," which describes local efforts aimed at improving science and mathematics education. A kit containing available information including a "Guide Book for Local Action," suggestions of general techniques adaptable to the needs and resources of individual communities, examples of tested projects in other communities, reference materials such as information on scholarships, improvement of science curricula, etc., and a bibliography of selected materials to help in planning a community program is obtainable. This kit has been prepared by the Local Action Task Force of the President's Committee on Scientists and Engineers and may be obtained by writing the President's Committee on Scientists and Engineers, Washington 25, D. C.

### PHOTOPLAY APPRECIATION

The Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 10 Brainerd Road, Summit, New Jersey, has the following materials available for classroom use:

A new text presenting a course of study in motion-picture appreciation. This is entitled *Standards of Photoplay Appreciation*. Its co-authors are William Lewin, formerly chairman of the English Department at Weequahic High School, Newark, and Alexander Frazier, assistant superintendent of schools, Phoenix. Single copies are \$4.75.

A periodical, entitled *Photoplay Studies*, is published monthly, ten times during the year (September - June) at \$3.00 per subscription or 30 cents per copy. This periodical is a discussion guide for the Rank Organization Motion Pictures.

A series of filmstrips in color, based on great photoplays, including *Alexander the Great*, *Greatest Show on Earth*, *Knights of the Round Table*, *Adventures of Robinson Crusoe*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *Ulysses*, *Hansel and Gretel*, *The Glass Slipper* (Cinderella), *Richard III*, *The Living Idol* (A Lesson in Mythology), *Columbus*, *The Vikings*, is available at \$7.50 each. Also available at 30 cents each from the same source are *Drama Studies*, guides to dramas, such as *West Side Story* and *Tale of Two Cities*.

### DRIVER EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS

The American Automobile Association, 1712 G Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., announces the availability of three publications related to driver education. Free samples will be sent to teachers and principals. These are:

## **Education Texts from Prentice-Hall . . .**

### **HELPING PARENTS UNDERSTAND THEIR CHILD'S SCHOOL: A Handbook for Teachers**

by **GRACE LANGDON**, Elliot-Pearson School,  
and **IRVING STOUT**, Arizona State College

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Based on two years of extensive research, this new text is written to help prospective teachers understand and answer parents' questions about their child's school. While emphasizing the importance of building easy, friendly, workable relationships with parents, the book also contains many illustrations of sound school room practices plus many suggestions for developing a broad, rich curriculum.

**528 pp. Pub. 1957 Text price \$5.25**

### **THE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL: In Elementary and Secondary Schools**

by **PAUL B. JACOBSON**, University of Oregon,  
**WILLIAM C. REAVIS**, The University of Chicago  
and **JAMES D. LOGSDON**, Shorewood  
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---

This text synthesizes important professional research on administering both elementary and secondary schools. Utilizing the knowledge and experience of successful principals as well as research on the school principalship, the book is based on more than 1,500 studies, investigations, and works on administrative topics. The authors give the student a functional picture of the school principal's work, providing a practical, how-to-do-it treatment of his professional duties. The text covers every phase of school administration from routine details to administrative policy decisions. Students learn to cope with the wide range of problems that face the principal.

**617 pp. Pub. 1954 Text price \$6.95**

### **EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION**

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Here is the first major attempt to bring together the materials needed for a critical study of education as a profession and of the problems of professionalization. The text provides a fresh point of departure for study of major educational issues.

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*Why Driver Education Teachers Quit*—This is an interesting study made in Ohio over a period of eight years to determine why driver education teachers left the profession. Of particular interest is the fact that after quitting as a driver education instructor, the average teacher took another job which paid \$516 per year more.

*Road Test Check List for Coach Operators*—Up to the present time, no road test has been generally available for testing bus drivers. This test has been developed by Professor Amos E. Neyhart of Pennsylvania State University.

*Practice Driving Check List*—This has been developed to help high-school teachers keep a record of the progress of each student taking behind-the-wheel driving lessons. The instructor can make out a card for each student enrolled and check each item as it is successfully practiced in the car. With this card, the instructor will know where to begin each lesson by glancing over the progress made by the student on previous days.

### FILMED LANGUAGE COURSES FOR SCHOOLS

Berlitz language courses will be filmed and made available to schools, industry, and government according to a 15-year agreement completed between Berlitz Publications, Inc. and the Pathscope Company of America. Both companies are located in New York City. The new project will combine the wide experience acquired by each company during many years of operational activity in its respective field.

Under the agreement, Pathscope will produce, on 35mm filmstrips, the various language courses offered by the Berlitz organization. All filmstrips will be in full color. Forty lessons will be filmed on each subject, and six-to-eight-minute records will accompany each filmstrip. Leading educators will work closely with Pathscope during production to ensure the suitability of the courses to the school curricula.

The first language course to be produced in the series is French, to be followed by Spanish, Italian, German, and Russian. A Pathscope production crew, headed by Frederick Carrier as producer-director, flew to France early in October to film the French series. Thereafter, each separate language subject will be filmed in color and on locale in the particular country where the language is native.

Upon completion of each language course, Pathscope will make it available on a sales basis to public schools, colleges and universities, industry, and government. *The first series of the French language course will be ready by January 15, 1959.* For further information write to Maggie Dent, Suite 601, 15 East 48th Street, New York 17, New York.

### PHYSICS TEACHERS TAKE SPECIAL COURSE

Students attending physics classes in 37 Suffolk County high schools are assured that their instruction will keep pace with the space age, as the result of a unique cooperative venture involving five educational agencies. A new approach to the teaching of physics, based on Massachusetts Institute of Technology program, is now the subject of study of fifty high school teachers who are attending night classes in laboratories lent by the new Patchogue High School.



## DEVEREUX SCHOOLS

From kindergarten through junior college, The Devereux Schools offer unique advantages to *slow-learning* or *emotionally disturbed* boys and girls who need remedial education through individualized programs.

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The Schools provide remedial and tutorial assistance in all subject areas, when indicated. Psychotherapy is available for boys and girls with emotional difficulties.

*Professional inquiries should be addressed to Charles J. Fowler, Registrar, Devereux Schools, Devon, Pennsylvania; western residents address Keith A. Seaton, Registrar, Devereux Schools in California, Santa Barbara, California.*

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The program was spearheaded by Walter M. Ormsby, Superintendent, and Fred B. Paynter, Assistant Superintendent, Suffolk Second District. The State Education Department is underwriting the tuition of all accepted students taking the year-long course. Hofstra College, Hempstead, Long Island, New York, was selected to administer the course and to give six hours of graduate credit. Hofstra also is supplying certain equipment.

#### A FILM ON CONSERVATION

The Forest Service of the United States Department of Agriculture has released a new conservation film, *Conservation Vistas*, for teachers and teachers-to-be. It is a 16mm color, sound film of 13 minutes in length. It is specifically designed for teachers, teachers colleges, school administrators, and school boards. It is particularly applicable for educational conferences, workshops, institutes, classes of teachers, and student teachers. The film presents a classroom and outdoor activities that add interest to conservation teaching. Teachers are introduced to a wide variety of conservation experiences—from those found in their everyday environment to the more ambitious programs of school forests and school conservation camps. The film has been produced by the Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in cooperation with the Milwaukee Schools. It is available from Regional Offices of the U. S. Forest Service or from the U. S. Forest Service, Washington 25, D. C.

#### PERSONNEL PUBLICATION AVAILABLE

The Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom of the NEA has recently produced a publication on *Developing Personnel Policies*. Prepared in portfolio form, the publication deals with sixteen personnel policy items which should properly be included in a school board's policy statement. The case study technique is used in presenting the ideas. Such topics as teaching controversial issues, promotions, salary plans, political activity of school employees, leaves of absence, and the probationary teacher are treated in a readable, but meaningful fashion. School administrators will find this publication especially useful in working with school boards and teachers in developing personnel policies. Single copies sell for 50 cents, with discounts, of ten per cent for ten or more copies. Orders should be placed with the National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

#### CONFERENCE ON YOUTH GROUPS IN CONFLICT

*Youth Groups in Conflict* is the report of a national conference on Youth Groups in Conflict, which was attended by 200 experts in this field. It was conducted by the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare with the help of the National Association of Social Workers, the National Social Welfare Assembly, and the United Community Funds and Councils of America. The worker, what he should be, what equipment he needs, how he should approach the youth in hostile street gangs, and what the community can do to back him were items of discussion at this conference and reported in this publication. Copies of *Youth Groups in Conflict* are available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. for 25 cents each, with the usual discount of 25 per cent on 100 or more copies sent to one address.



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### ADVENTURES IN SCIENCE

The new classroom tool to stimulate youngsters' interest in science, *Adventures in Science at the Smithsonian*, is being enthusiastically applauded by state departments of education across the country. Published by the Smithsonian in collaboration with Colortone Press of Washington, D. C., the color-illustrated 24-page booklet was designed especially to help induce the youth of America to learn the background and importance of the scientific fields. Upper elementary- and junior high-school students will find this booklet interesting and informative not only because of its descriptions of adventures in the natural sciences, but also because it reveals in part some of the many ways in which the Smithsonian Institution has helped advance science.

This summer, *Science Service* reported that 70% of the 1958 National Science Fair finalists became interested in science between the ages of eight and 14. Nearly half were already interested before their eleventh birthdays. Colortone Press, Washington 9, D. C., is distributing *Adventures in Science* nationwide for classroom use.

### QUALITY CONTROL FOR EDUCATION

The trouble with high schools today is that they are still teaching traditional subject matter by "archaic" methods, not that schools have been getting soft, Prof. Lee J. Cronbach of the University of Illinois College of Education contends. He states that schools are better than they were 100 years ago, but not good enough to measure up to our resources and responsibilities. They must be reshaped by systematic research and development just as public health has been transformed by modern practices in diet, sanitation, vaccination, and treatment. Cronbach spoke before the Division of Educational Psychology at the American Psychological Association national convention in Washington, D. C.

"What is most commonly wrong in the high school is that the class is plodding through traditional subject matter taught by archaic methods, methods and subject matter condemned by educationists and liberal arts professors alike," he said. "What is really wrong with the academic program is that it is so much the same as that of a generation ago."

He noted that college freshmen today present almost the same courses for credit as 30 years ago, in English, social science, and mathematics, except that "20 per cent of today's young men have a full fourth year of mathematics, compared to 5 per cent in 1927." Only foreign languages show a decline, Cronbach said. Thirty years ago, 81 per cent had at least two years of foreign language; now only 45 per cent reach that level. In Cronbach's opinion, this drop in enrollment in foreign languages is to be applauded, inasmuch as most language teaching in schools today "neither strengthens the mind nor develops useful skill." "It is very fashionable right now to clamor for increasing foreign language study," he observed, but added that nobody can agree on which foreign languages are to be taught nor on method of teaching. "You can't teach 'foreign language,' you have to teach Latin, French, Russian, or Indonesian," he pointed out.

Mathematicians have gone a "long way" in recognizing and coping with the problem of a sterile, formalized curriculum, Cronbach said, pointing to the Illinois School Mathematics Project in which "mathematicians and

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educationists agreed to torpedo the whole barnacled curriculum and lay a new keel, introducing set theory, number theory, and calculus—not as techniques but as mathematical systems.” They make the “radical” assumption that high-school mathematics should contain some mathematical ideas developed since 1600!

Cronbach urged “quality control” for education as a means of improving poor schools. Such a program would include achievement tests, plus information on drop-outs and their reasons, record of success in college, and other indices of the value of the educational program. “Many schools now have limited testing programs, but almost never are the findings adequately compiled and compared, let alone fully interpreted,” he said. “Operations research is fully accepted when the efficiency of school bus routes is in question, but not for examining the efficiency of instruction.” Results of tests devised by psychologists to measure mental capacity have been used to sort out pupils who cannot succeed under traditional methods of instruction. Instead, schools should be trying to find methods of teaching which will be effective for different levels of mental ability.

#### TEACHER'S GUIDE TO “BOLD JOURNEY”

This ABC-TV program is a weekly documentary and is presented by the Ralston Purina Company. Available for teachers are weekly *Teachers Guides*. These 6-page, printed guides provide background information as well as a synopsis of the program. Also included are teaching suggestions before viewing and after viewing, a glossary, a list of references, and a one-question quiz. The *Teachers Guides* are available from Ralston TV-Education Department, Box 339, Radio City Station, New York 19, N. Y.

#### A STUPENDOUS TASK

You think you've got troubles? Consider the case of Dr. John Jacob Theobald, and give thanks for your minor miseries. Dr. Theobald is the new Superintendent of Schools for New York City, the largest and most complex school system in the world. He took over the job on Labor Day and had a week to break in before the fall term opened September 8, his 54th birthday. Here are some of the shudder-making statistics of his job:

His school system is spread over the 319 square miles of New York City. It has nearly 1,000 schools. The system employs nearly 50,000 teachers and other workers. Its various budgets run to almost \$500 million a year.

Pupils? He's got a million of them. Yankee Stadium, multiplied 14 times and filled to capacity, would barely seat Superintendent Theobald's million students.

The system includes an educational radio station, operating since 1938, and television programs aired since 1947. Its school garden program has been maintained for 52 years, and the pupils harvest about 15,000 pounds of produce a year.

Maybe there was some sentiment to his accepting the \$37,500-a-year job. His father, Dr. Jacob Theobald served in the public schools for nearly half a century.

In one recent five-year period, nearly 100,000 such pupils born outside the continental limits of the United States, were admitted to the New York City public schools. Of this total, 66,426 came from Puerto Rico, 15,465

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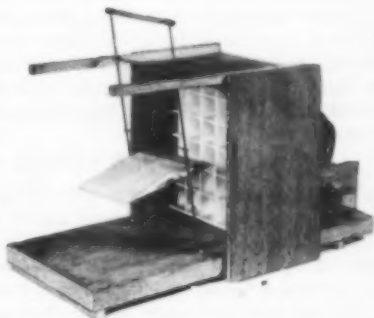
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from European countries, and the rest from other foreign countries. Accordingly, the New York schools have to provide education programs to meet the special needs of pupils who have different cultural backgrounds—complicated by the fact that many of them speak little, if any, English. Latest complete figures show there were 113,887 pupils of Puerto Rican ancestry in the New York City public schools. They are predominately Spanish speaking.

One of his first jobs, Dr. Theobald has said, will be to set up a strong information office, both for the public and for those working in the schools. It's important, he feels, to have an informed public which can then say what it wants in the schools. He has also said he believes a good teacher should get a salary of between \$10,000 and \$12,000 a year.—*Education U. S. A.*

#### OMNIBUS

The Fall series of NBC's *Omnibus* program has its opening on Sunday, October 26, 5-6 PM, EDST. Plans for the series include 15 programs on alternate Sunday afternoons. In addition, special 90-minute programs will be presented in night-time periods. Details on the *Omnibus* programs are not available at this writing, but there is promise that the distinguished Boston attorney, Joseph Welch, will contribute to one or more programs on capital punishment and that Gene Kelly may be expected to be the star of a program in December tentatively titled "Dancing Is a Man's Game."

#### YOUR SCIENCE FACILITIES

The Scientific Apparatus Makers Association recently announced the availability of *A Guide for Evaluating Your Science Facilities*. This publication was prepared by the Scientific Apparatus Makers Association's Laboratory Equipment Section in cooperation with the School Facilities Council. It was written as a public information service for school administrators, school board members, architects, and other persons interested in providing adequate education facilities. Request for copies should be addressed to: Science Guide, Scientific Apparatus Makers Association, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois.

#### TIME OFF FOR VOTING UNDER STATE LAW

A 1958 revision of Bulletin 138, *Time Off for Voting Under State Law*, has been issued by the Bureau of Labor Standards of the U. S. Department of Labor. The bulletin includes a 12-page table outlining the legal provisions in the 28 states and Hawaii that permit employees to take time off to vote. It also contains a list of the jurisdictions that permit eligible civilian voters who are absent from the state to vote by mail in general elections. A limited supply of free copies of this bulletin may be obtained from the Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C. It is also available from the Regional U. S. Department of Labor offices.

#### HIGHER EDUCATION PAYS LESS THAN OTHERS FOR ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

"Salaries of college and university teachers are lagging far behind those of other positions which also require real academic excellence," said NEA Research Division Director Sam Lambert, commenting on the Division's recent study, *Salaries Paid and Salary Practices in Universities, Colleges, and Junior*

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*Colleges*, 1957-58, in which nearly 77 per cent of the nation's degree-granting institutions participated. Ray C. Maul, assistant director of the NEA Research Division and director of the study, said the gap has widened between higher salaried college teachers and those in the lower brackets even in the two years since the Division's last study in this field. In a widely varied scale, only about one per cent earn more than \$13,000 annually and about one per cent earn less than \$3200 annually. For those able to supplement their salaries in the relatively few summer teaching jobs available, the rate of pay in 44 per cent of the cases is lower than that in effect during the regular school year. But all is not on the dark side. An increasing number of successful high-school teachers are being invited to join college staffs, and at salaries which pull them from the better schools.—*NEA News*

### THIRTY-SEVEN PRIVATE CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS ACCREDITED

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The *List* has been sent to every high school in the nation. If there should be any question about the reliability of a school, prospective enrollees should check the *List* or the *Home Study Blue Book* before enrolling. Many public libraries also have the *List* and the *Blue Book*. A copy of the *List* and the *Home Study Blue Book* may be obtained by writing to the National Home Study Council, 1420 New York Avenue, N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

### PREDICTING COLLEGE SUCCESS

Every high-school principal and counselor needs to know how to help discover and encourage talented students who should consider continuing their education beyond the high school. Recent reports in the mass media and in professional journals reflect the current urgency of this. In response to a general need for adequate achievement norms on Oregon high-school pupils, a research study has been initiated by the University of Oregon through a grant from the graduate school. It involves the cooperation of the three major state-supported institutions of higher learning in Oregon. High-School principals throughout Oregon have also been asked to participate in the program.

Aimed at is the development of Oregon norms at the ninth- and tenth-grade level for college-bound students. It is a new innovation in this state. Adequate norms make it possible for the high-school principal and/or counselors to work directly with ninth- and/or tenth-grade students in educational counseling. The state-wide approach should result in the development of extremely valuable normative data. The better students, particularly those

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who have made no plans to attend higher education institutions, may be encouraged to consider the possibilities of a college education.—By Daniel W. Fullmer, *Oregon Education*, May 1958, page 13.

U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION ENROLLMENT ESTIMATES:  
CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES, 1958-59 and 1957-58

SCHOOL	YEAR	
	1958-59	1957-58
<i>Kindergarten through Grade 8:</i>		
Public school system (regular full-time) <sup>1</sup> -----	26,927,000	26,037,000
Nonpublic schools (regular full-time) <sup>1</sup> -----	4,693,000	4,466,000
Federal schools for Indians-----	25,000	26,000
Federal schools under P. L. 874 <sup>2</sup> -----	20,000	20,000
Other <sup>3</sup> -----	128,000	121,000
Total kindergarten through Grade 8-----	31,793,000	30,670,000
<i>Grades 9-12:</i>		
Public school system (regular full-time) <sup>1</sup> -----	7,790,000	7,399,000
Private and parochial schools (regular full-time) <sup>1</sup> -----	1,002,000	942,000
Federal schools for Indians-----	11,000	11,000
Federal schools under P. L. 874 <sup>2</sup> -----	1,000	1,000
Other <sup>3</sup> -----	76,000	71,000
Total grades 9-12-----	8,880,000	8,424,000
Total elementary and secondary-----	40,673,000	39,094,000
<i>Higher education:</i>		
Universities, colleges, professional schools, including junior colleges, normal schools and technical institutes-----	3,623,000	3,450,000
<i>Other schools:</i>		
Private commercial schools day and evening) -	560,000	560,000
Nurse training schools (not affiliated with colleges and universities)-----	89,000	91,000
Total other schools-----	649,000	651,000
GRAND TOTALS-----	44,945,000	43,195,000

<sup>1</sup> Office of Education projections of February 1957.

<sup>2</sup> Includes only "schools operated on post by Federal Agency."

<sup>3</sup> Includes model and practice schools in teacher training institutions, subcollegiate departments of colleges, and residential schools for exceptional children.

NOTE: These estimates include enrollments for the entire school or college year; they are not restricted to September enrollments alone.

Total estimated population of continental United States (excluding Armed Forces overseas) as of July 1, 1957, was 170,333,000.

Total estimated 1958-59 school enrollments include 28 per cent of this population.

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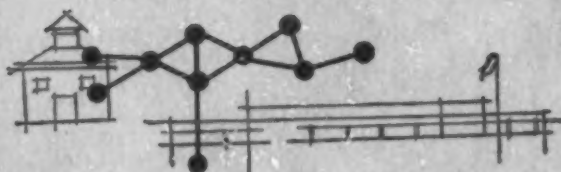
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